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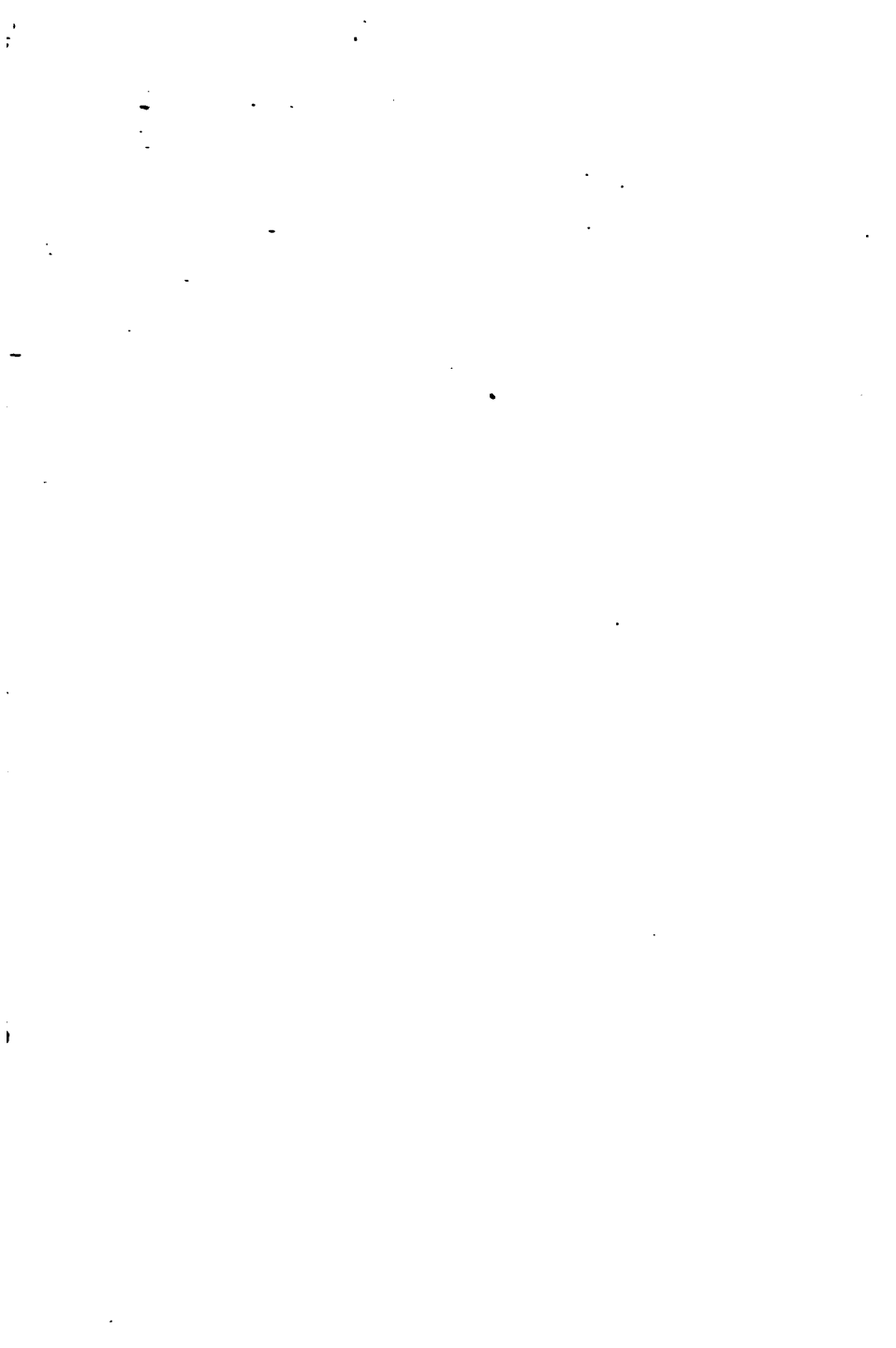
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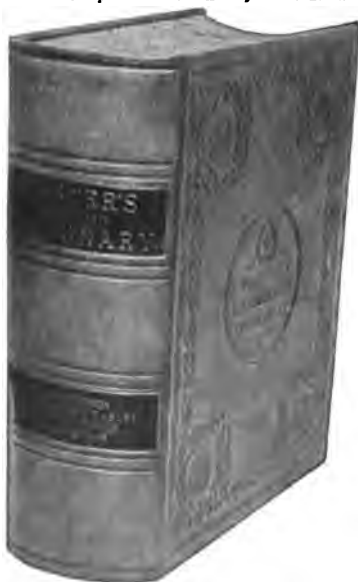
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THE MAGAZINE OF SYSTEM IN READING

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Vol. 66

MARCH, 1912

No. 1



The Candidates and the Issues

We are not permitted to forget that this is "presidential" year. The national conventions come in June, but the newspapers and political circles are full of the presidential topic. Who are the candidates? Who are the likely nominees? What will the issues be?

Since our last survey of the political field interesting developments have not been rare. The most important of them, unquestionably, is the Roosevelt boom. There are those who not only insist that Colonel Roosevelt is a candidate for the Republican nomination, but who go on to predict that he will be nominated by a "stampeded convention" and elected by an unprecedented popular majority. At one time rumors were current that President Taft, as a weary and disgusted man, had decided to retire and decline to be a candidate; his own declaration that "nothing but death could remove him from the field" disposed of those rumors.

So Mr. Taft is a candidate; Senator La Follette is an avowed candidate, and has been touring the country and presenting his platform—a most radical one, by the way, including as it does the referendum, the initiative and the recall (the judiciary not being exempt from the last-named reform); Senator Cummins of Iowa, has announced his candidacy; Colonel Roosevelt, in the opinion of many politicians and editors, is a candidate, although he has repeatedly stated that he was not and would not become one. In

some states where the law provides for an advisory presidential primary Mr. Roosevelt's name has been placed on the primary ballot. Straw votes in newspapers and elsewhere indicate that many favor the nomination of Mr. Roosevelt either because they fear President Taft could not win if nominated or else because they are not satisfied with these or those features of the Taft administration. A number of Republican Senators and Representatives say openly that "Taft does not take the progressive view" of things; others think he is sufficiently progressive, but not sufficiently forceful, aggressive and efficient. As to Colonel Roosevelt, not only are many insurgents for him, but moderate business men are advocating his nomination—the latter chiefly on account of his trust ideas, his severe attacks on the Sherman act and his advocacy of constructive legislation permitting combinations and regulating them in the interest of the public.

The Roosevelt boom has revived the "third term" question. Mr. Roosevelt himself once said solemnly that the tradition against three terms for any President was wise and salutary, and he made a pledge against accepting a nomination for a third term. But his present supporters assert that he had reference to three "consecutive" terms. After a "break," they argue, a man may be nominated and elected for a third term without danger to the Republic or fear of dictatorships, autocracy, undue influence, etc. Does Mr. Roosevelt himself take this position? Would he accept a nomination in spite of his "pledge," regarding the condition of things today as being very different from that which called forth his self-denying ordinance? This question may in due time be answered by Mr. Roosevelt himself; it cannot be answered for him by anyone. Meantime there is much talk concerning the third-term tradition, the meaning and necessity of it, and so on. Should Mr. Roosevelt be nominated, it is safe to say that "the third-term" will be one of the leading issues of the campaign.

In the Democratic camp the developments have been less exciting. No new candidates have appeared. Some of the "possibilities" have lost a little ground, some have won a little. The "stock" of Woodrow Wilson has gone up in spite of many bitter attacks and charges of ingratitude to personal friends and indiscreet "boomers." Governor Harmon has made some strong speeches and advanced his candidacy, but the radicals and insurgents of his party are as hostile to him as they were before.

As to the issues of the presidential campaign, there is no indication that any one of them will become "paramount." The tariff, the trusts, finance, monopoly, the cost of living—these are the issues which the platform makers and leaders must face and discuss. They are the issues which the presidential candidates or "possibilities" are actually discussing. It is still true and manifest, however, that, with the exception of the element of protection in the tariff, as to which a real issue exists, there is very little to differentiate the up-to-date progressive Republican from the progressive Democrat. That is why some thinkers predict a realignment of groups and forces within a few years.



First Report of the Tariff Board

It will be recalled that President Taft vetoed three tariff bills last year—downward revision bills which a combination of Democrats and insurgent or progressive Republicans succeeded in putting through Congress. He vetoed the bills, including the best-considered and most popular of them, the wool and woolens bill, because he had no information to enable him to determine their soundness and fairness. He was pledged to downward revision of the tariff, and had admitted that the wool and woolens schedule—the notorious Schedule K—particularly needed overhauling; still, he was not willing to act on alleged information obtained in the ordinary way. A tariff board, nonpartisan and impartial, was at that very time gathering information

about wool and other industries, and comparing American with European conditions of production, costs, wages, quality, etc. The President argued that he was bound to wait for the reports of this body of investigators, because he had appointed it, public opinion had approved it, and everybody was weary of the log-rolling, guessing, fabrication, misrepresentation, trading which had for decades characterized tariff-making.

The President's vetoes were sharply criticized, especially by revenue-tariff men, who do not accept differences in the cost of production as a test of proper protection. But there was much to be said for the the vetoes from the viewpoint of moderate protectionists who would equalize by duties the differences between American and old-world or foreign costs of production. The real question was: Would the tariff board make reports of value and facilitate tariff revision instead of postponing and hampering it?

The board made its first report in December, and dealt with wool and woollens. The report was very thorough, comprehensive and scientific. It contained a mass of relevant and important information regarding wool and the manufactures of wool. It showed that many of the rates in the wool schedule were prohibitory; that they were much in excess of the difference in the cost of production; that they tended to eliminate foreign competition and establish domestic monopolies; that there was ample reason for a revision downward of the whole schedule in accordance with the protective principle.

President Taft promptly sent a message to Congress urging revision of the schedule in consonance with the report. At first nothing but praise of the report was heard, and it seemed that congressional action must quickly follow. If the report commended itself to all interests and parties, what was there to hinder immediate action? Unfortunately differences of opinion were not long in making their appearance. The report, some said, left matters where they

had been prior to the investigation. There were no definite recommendations in it; much was still uncertain; the stand-patters regarded the report as a vindication of the existing tariff; the Democrats found no guidance in its discussion of costs of production. And so on. Disappointment, in short, was expressed in many quarters.

But the fact remains that the report provides a far better basis for rate reductions than the ordinary methods do. Something is indeed left to Congress, but in doing that something, in fixing new rates of duty, it can follow facts and trustworthy evidence instead of ex-parte assertions and conjectures. We have no real tariff commission to recommend reductions; perhaps one will be created, as many believe it ought to be created. The present tariff board has limited powers and limited resources; it has done its work well and as far as it goes that work is valuable, at least to those who believe in piecemeal revision of the tariff and in some degree of protection.



Proposed Labor-Capital Inquiry

We had occasion recently to comment on a very remarkable manifesto issued in England by a group of distinguished men who represented capital, science, labor, and public spirit. The document dealt with the strike and lock-out problem, the warfare between employers and employed, the bitter industrial discord and its many demoralizing effects, and urged earnest study of modern remedies and solutions—notably profit-sharing, co-operation and the like.

As a direct result of the McNamara confessions and similar events, an American manifesto on labor conditions has been issued by a body of social workers, educators, ethical and religious teachers, and enlightened men of affairs. In form the manifesto was a petition to the President and Congress urging the creation of a national commission to study thoroughly the industrial situation, with its strikes, violence, wastes, economic and social losses, and

to consider and recommend remedies. It is to be hoped that the commission will be appointed and the inquiry made. What the labor problem is, what trade unionism does or fails to do, what arbitration does or fails to do, whether strikes can be prevented, whether compulsion in settling strikes is desirable—these are all vital and “burning” things.

Meantime, however, the document should be studied by the general public, for which it is of course intended. It contains wholesome truth that employers, labor leaders, intelligent workmen, as well as legislators and officials, should take to heart. The importance of the petition is such, and its style is so impressive, that we reproduce it on page 22 of this issue as a most significant social-economic and moral document characteristic of our epoch—an epoch of storm and stress, but also of hope, promise and noble endeavor. Among the signers were Jane Addams, Dr. Lyman Abbott, Rabbi Wise, George Foster Peabody, John M. Glenn, John Collier, and Professors Carver, Jenks, Patten, Ely, Fisher, Fetter, Ross and Seligman.



Railroad Finance and Publicity

The question of regulating railroad finance, so as to prevent inflation and overcapitalization of railroad properties, or the issue of securities for doubtful purposes, has been before Congress and the country for some years. If we regulate railroad rates, forbid rebates, supervise common carriers in many ways, because they are natural monopolies and dependent upon special privileges, the same principle clearly justifies control of railroad finance. But the question of providing for such control has proved a knotty one. Legislation has been proposed and rejected either as too radical or as too superficial. State rights are involved. It finally became manifest that the matter required close and impartial study. President Taft, under a provision of Congress, appointed a commission of experts, headed by Dr. Hadley of Yale, to investigate and report on the subject.

This able and enlightened commission lately submitted its report. The President, reversing himself, indorsed the report because of its evident sincerity and soundness. The press generally finds the report convincing, although it is largely negative.

Briefly put, the commission held that direct and complete federal control and regulation of issues of railroad stocks and bonds would at this time serve no useful purpose; that legislation apparently "radical" on this matter might prove injurious and deceptive; that conflicts of state and federal jurisdiction would arise to confuse the situation and add to existing litigation and perplexity; and that the safer and sounder plan was to limit the federal government for the present to the rigorous use of the weapon of full, accurate and prompt publicity as to railroad securities. In the opinion of the commission publicity would do a great deal toward eliminating "frenzied" or even unsound railroad finance, and thus protect alike investors and shippers. On this point the commission said:

Accurate knowledge of the facts surrounding the issue of securities and the expenditure of the proceeds is the matter of most importance. It is one thing upon which the federal government can effectively insist today; it is the fundamental thing which must serve as a basis for whatever regulation may be desirable in the future. If full publicity be given we shall also lessen the fraudulent creation of debt. It is the degree of publicity rather than the stringency of the law which gives to the people any real protection.

The commission recommends physical valuation of railroads in certain cases, but points out that reforms in rate-making do not necessarily depend on physical values. On the whole, the commission deprecated "radical" treatment of railroad finance, while emphasizing the beneficial effect of thoroughgoing publicity in curing past or preventing future evils.



What and Where the Americans Are

Whatever anthropologists and sociologists may say about the American type, for the rough and general pur-

poses of current discussion, an American is one born in the United States. Naturalized citizens may be loyal and proud Americans, but most of them are "hyphenated Americans;" they are still German, British, Scandinavian or Russian in some sense, or to some degree, and are willing to have that implied in their names. Those born of foreign parents know no "hyphen" and are "pure" Americans. As to the offspring of such, the children of native-born parents, no trace of anything foreign is found among them, as their early environment and associations were American. A recent table based on the new census gives us an idea of the distribution of the element which had native-born parents and its percentage of the whole local population. Here is the table in part:

West Virginia	85.3
Kentucky	81.4
Indiana	80.0
Oklahoma	79.0
New Mexico	78.0
Tennessee	75.7
Texas	67.0
North Carolina	67.0
Maine	67.0
Ohio	65.0
Illinois	48.0
Michigan	45.0
New Jersey	43.0
New York	37.0
Connecticut	37.0
Massachusetts	34.0
Wisconsin	33.0
Minnesota	29.0

This showing is very striking when analyzed. The most "American" of our states, it appears, are West Virginia, Kentucky, Indiana and Tennessee. A study of their characteristics from this point of view should prove interesting. Are they superior, and if so, wherein? What is the condition of their politics and morals? It appears that in thirteen states "foreigners" are in the majority, while in twelve states the native stock comprises more than two-thirds of the population. Of course, the states or sections that have

attracted heavy immigration year after year and decade after decade are the most "foreign."



Wisconsin Income Tax Upheld

Attention was called in these pages to the very progressive spirit of the decision of the Supreme Court of Wisconsin in the employers' liability and accident compensation case. In the opinion rendered in that case the court laid down vital and advanced rules of constitutional construction. The same spirit and principles underlie a decision rendered in the even more far-reaching income tax case.

The case involved the constitutionality of the new state act for the taxation of incomes. The power of a state to tax incomes was not disputed, but the power to make exemptions and provide for graduated or progressive taxes on incomes was warmly disputed; the Wisconsin law containing such "radical" features. It taxes no income below \$800 a year; a man and wife together are exempt up to \$1,200 a year. All higher incomes are taxed on a graduated scale—the larger the income, the higher the rate of taxation. Are these things permissible under constitutions which prescribe uniformity and equality of treatment for citizens, which recognize no classes or castes, which guarantee due process of law?

They are, says the Wisconsin Supreme Court with emphasis and unanimity. A state income tax may or may not be wise, but courts have nothing to do with policy. The people and legislature of the state had decreed income taxation, and that was final. As to the alleged inequalities and differences in treatment complained of, the act merely recognized conditions and facts. Incomes are not equal; opportunities are not equal; burdens are not equal; progressive taxation therefore is not unjust under modern conditions, and it would be pedantic and technical to hold that such taxation was forbidden by constitutional provisions drawn under totally different conditions.

Here we have again the doctrine of marching and vital constitutions, of construction in the light of reason and equity as felt by our own generation. Plain prohibitions are one thing; vague, general phrases are another thing. In applying the latter elasticity, modernity and sense are required of the courts.



Reforms that Are Rapidly Advancing

Whatever one may think of certain radical tendencies in American politics, with reference to a number of reforms conditions, not theories, confront him. Events have their own logic, and events have produced striking changes in public opinion.

A few years ago "government by commission" was little and unfavorably known. Today commission government is in force and effect in scores of cities, large and small. A volume has been compiled giving a history of this movement, and one national body proposes to investigate it. Commission rule may assume various forms and develop evils of its own, but its necessity and utility as a remedy for graft, cheap politics, division of responsibility and crying inefficiency are widely recognized, and it is making headway steadily and rapidly.

Two years ago "the short ballot" was a phrase little understood. When explained, the average citizen was inclined to deprecate it as savoring of tyranny and lack of faith. Today the short ballot movement is national and has a record of many successes. The short ballot has many friends and few intelligent enemies. Cities and states are adopting it, thus getting rid of a serious abuse—the multiplication of elective officers and blind voting. Is there any reason, asks the average man, why clerks of courts, state printers, chief bailiffs, etc., should be elected? Is democracy as a principle opposed to responsibility, to efficiency, to discipline, to leadership? It is not, answers the thoughtful man, and the short ballot is accepted with enthusiasm.

The following facts were given recently in *Collier's Weekly* regarding the short ballot movement:

California leads the country in the application of the short ballot idea to State offices. After the victory at the primaries, the Lincoln-Roosevelt League made the short ballot the first specific plank in the Republican platform. Hiram Johnson preached that issue up and down the State. The result is that the State printer is no longer an elective officer, and that in the vote on various measures, which is to be held October 10, the clerk of the Supreme Court is likely to go. It is an honorable position for California to hold—to lead in a movement which is destined to a great future. The States must in time follow the cities. Already the short ballot exists in eight cities or towns in California. Kansas has the most towns—twenty-four, Pratt being the latest addition. Then comes Texas and Illinois with sixteen each. Oklahoma with fourteen, South Dakota with nine, Iowa with eight. Utah and Alabama are new arrivals with five and three respectively. Massachusetts and Michigan have four each; West Virginia, North Carolina, and North Dakota, three each; Colorado, Mississippi, Tennessee, Washington and Wisconsin two each. In Idaho, Lewiston is the pioneer; in Kentucky, Newport; in Louisiana, Shreveport; in Maryland, Cumberland; in Montana, Missoula; in New Mexico, Roswell; in Oregon, Baker; in South Dakota, Columbia.

Direct primaries constituted a terrible "heresy" a few years ago. Today it is good orthodox doctrine that direct primaries are better than conventions and caucus rule. Maine voted for a direct primary. New York, after desperate resistance by old-type machine politicians, has adopted a fairly comprehensive, if faulty, primary act, which will be perfected by future legislatures. With direct primaries go acts against corrupt practices, against scandalous or heavy expenditures in campaigns, against loose, immoral, careless methods of getting votes.

The referendum, the initiative, and even the recall—except as regards the judiciary—are marching all over the country. The people have not lost faith in representative government, but they insist on checks and devices that will make and keep their servants truly representative. Legislative scandals, corruption, bribery, waste, tyranny, the domination of special interests—these are the "arguments" that are introducing the innovations in question. No sober-minded observer can doubt that the reforms specified above will spread all over the United States.

Are American Morals and Manners Deteriorating?

Professor Franklin Giddings of Columbia University, a leading sociologist, stated in a recent lecture that sober-minded observers must recognize "a profound deterioration in American manners and morals." In the last twenty years, according to Professor Giddings, alike public and private life and conduct have shown a decline. There is greater toleration of vice, laxity, irreverence and flippancy; there are more scandals and "easy divorces," and there is a lower tone generally in amusements and in speech and popular literature.

There is much in this arraignment that is true. It is calculated to give us pause. If there has been deterioration, there may be ways and means of checking it in the future. What are its causes? What are the preventives and remedies? Professor Giddings holds that we lack "like-mindedness," and that heavy immigration, the babel of tongues and standards and customs, rapid growth and poor assimilation are the chief causes of the moral retrogression he deplors. Many agree with him, not only in his statement of fact, but also in his diagnosis and suggested cure. But there are others who regard his assertion as too sweeping, who believe that, on the whole, there has been progress, moral advance in our public, political, social and domestic life, and that the evils so apparent on many sides are neither deep-seated nor "American."

The New York *World*, in comment on Professor Giddings' remarks, said:

However it may be with morals, further proof is needed that manners have declined. The testimony of many foreign observers is that they have improved in the half-century.

Present-day American manners may have less of a courteous flourish to them than gentlemen of the old school might desire. They are simpler and perhaps have a smack of business-like directness. But what they have lost in formality they have gained in uniformity. They are not the possession of one social class but of all. American manners have undergone a democratization which has bettered their general quality and tended to eliminate the kind of "Americanism" which Dickens and Mrs. Trollope satirized.

Taking manners to mean morals, an age which has put the ban of public disapproval on prize-fighting, gambling and drunkenness, which has enforced laws against political corruption and discovered forms of dishonesty and immorality to agitate against which raised no scruples among our ancestors, cannot be hastily indicted for deterioration from earlier standards of conduct. It is not by the mob at a lynching but by the added force of the moral sentiment which reprobates the barbarity that the measure of American progress in manners is to be taken.

The Chicago *Record-Herald*, writing on the same text, said:

The notion that there is more corruption in public life than there was a generation or two ago is wholly baseless. There is more publicity, and this is mistaken for more corruption, but as a matter of fact the trend in public life is upward and forward. We demand more honesty and delicacy, not less, of our legislators, judges and executives. The abolition of passes, perquisites, fees and sinecures is a result and mark of moral advance. The merit system is another result; the anti-corrupt-practice laws are still another.

As to manners, there has been deterioration in some directions, on account of new factors which make for confusion. There is less respect for age than there ought to be; there is less gallantry and chivalry than we should like to see; there is too much pushing and elbowing. But, on the other hand, the improvement in table manners and in conversation is indisputable; equally patent is the improvement in office manners. Education, the reading habit, the unprecedented circulation of papers and magazines, the popularization of the theater, the concert hall and the opera house have all worked together as refining influences.

As to the remedies for the deterioration where it is admitted, or where it threatens, the consensus of opinion is that they are found in more attention to moral training, in spiritual and social work, in better distribution and friendlier treatment of immigrants, etc. The essential thing is to develop "like-mindedness" in a nation, and where this is difficult, on account of heterogeneity of population and heavy immigration, the duty and necessity of steadily pursuing the task is all the greater.



India, Britain and New Policy

The Durbar, unlike the coronation of the king and queen of the United Kingdom "at home," was much more than "a purely social function." It was made the occasion for the announcement of important changes in policy. The

tories regard these changes as "grave," but from any liberal point of view they must seem moderate and wise. Discontent is general and deep in India; mere repression will not reconcile the more educated and progressive Hindu population to British rule; steps must be taken toward the self-government of the great subject empire. The present Indian government, which reflects the ideas of the present British government, fully recognizes the underlying facts of the situation, and in a formal statement explaining the removal of the capital of India from Calcutta to Delhi, made these significant admissions:

"It is certain that, in the course of time, the just demands of Indians for a larger share in the government of the country will have to be satisfied, and the question will be how this devolution of power can be conceded without impairing the supreme authority of the Governor-General-in-Council. The only possible solution of the difficulty would appear to be gradually to give the Provinces a larger measure of self-government, until at last India would consist of a number of administrations, autonomous in all provincial affairs, with the Government of India above them all, and possessing power to interfere in cases of misgovernment, but ordinarily restricting their functions to matters of Imperial concern. In order that this consummation may be attained, it is essential that the Supreme Government should not be associated with any Provincial Government. The removal of the Government of India from Calcutta, is, therefore, a measure which will, in our opinion, materially facilitate the growth of local self-government on sound and safe lines. It is generally recognized that the capital of a great central Government should be separate and independent, and effect has been given to this principle in the United States, Canada, and Australia."

Bengal, divided under Curzon's administration, is to be reunited, the resentment caused among the natives at the partition being recognized as just. Other reforms, with various customary remissions of fines, pardons for offenders, grants for education, etc., were announced in connection with the Durbar. The essential point, however, is that Great Britain, at least as far as it is represented by the Asquith ministry and the majority in the commons, definitely and publicly admits that the only way of successfully maintaining British supremacy in India is to give her more and more autonomy, more and more freedom and opportunity for the development and application of native ability.

India is to be no exception to the modern rule of colonial policy. The doctrines applied in Canada, Australia, South Africa are the doctrines that must, more slowly perhaps, be applied in India and Egypt. The Orient is not to be dogmatically and arrogantly pronounced naturally unfit for self-government; the principles of democracy and modern progress are not to be limited to the West by self-constituted benevolent despots. The greatest glory of British rule in India and Egypt is to be the glory of relinquishing power more and more and transferring it to competent native hands: This may take many decades, but the task must be pursued systematically and steadily.



New German Reichstag

Five years ago the general elections in Germany resulted in a victory for the imperial government and the chancellor of that time, Von Buelow. The latter, it is true, had hoped to crush or weaken the Center or Catholic party, with which he had quarreled, and had been disappointed in that hope, for the Center fully maintained its strength. But the Social Democrats lost about forty seats in that election, an appeal having been made to nationalism and patriotism, and the empire having been represented as being in grave peril through opposition on the part of the radical elements to increased naval and military expenditures. Von Buelow and the court rejoiced exceedingly and were in fact able to carry out their "defence" program. But the socialists knew that their losses were temporary, while Von Buelow was unable to command a majority for other than "patriotic" bills and was forced to resign. His successor, the present chancellor, Bethmann-Hollweg, announced that he would seek no party support, form no alliances, make no promises; that he would remain above and outside all parties. This was a step backward, for Von Buelow had indirectly advanced genuine parliamentary government and the principle of "responsible cabinets." The success of the

attempt, moreover, was doubted. Still, the chancellor and the imperial government knew that the reactionary, conservative and moderate groups together controlled the reichstag, and while there was occasional friction and criticism, the government could count on a majority on all important questions. But that reichstag came to its natural end, and a new one had to be elected. The Moroccan settlement had displeased the conservatives; dear food, high tariff duties, heavy taxation and demands for still heavier army and navy appropriations were unpopular with the working classes, while the liberal elements of the empire had grievances of their own. The imperial chancellor and even the kaiser himself made appeals to the electorate in the interest of conservative candidates or supporters of the government's policies. Social democracy was declared to be "the enemy" on account of its opposition to military waste and frenzied rivalry in armaments.

The general elections were held on January 12, and the results of the balloting on that day were a blow and disappointment to the government, as well as to the mild liberal and radical groups. The Social Democrats had made large gains and had captured many seats from the other parties. In many constituencies, however, second ballots were necessary, since none of the candidates had secured a majority of the votes cast. The second ballots were cast on January 19, 22, and 25. The Social Democrats continued their successes, and the government suffered further losses.

The net result of the general election is the virtual disappearance of the "safe" government majority. The conservative groups and Catholic centrists together have only 190 seats, as against 208 seats of the "opposition," of which the Social Democrats, with 110 seats constitute the most formidable and solid group.

The position of the several parties or groups in the new reichstag is as follows:

Socialists, 110; centrists, 93; conservatives, 66; national liberals, 47; radicals, 44; Poles, 18; all others, 19.

The balance of power is with the national liberals and their allies, the more advanced "radicals." The government will be forced to make concessions to these groups. It is said, indeed, that the kaiser may dissolve the reichstag and order another general election, but would that make a favorable impression on the country and tend to strengthen conservatism? Would it not rather increase opposition and make more Socialists and radicals?



Chinese Republic

Amazing as the fact may appear to western skeptics, China seems to be ready for some form of republican government. At least, the firmness of the revolutionary leaders, the absence of disorder in the rebellious provinces, the support of the republican movement by the merchants, students and masses—all such things as these seem to show that the ancient empire is not as dependent on a dynasty for national unity as many have thought. It is, indeed, remembered by astonished observers of the Chinese developments that autonomy and democracy are fundamental principles in the "Celestial Kingdom."

True, the western powers, in spite of appeals by the representatives of China's republican government, have withheld recognition from the Republic. They have confidence in Dr. Wu Ting Fang, the Minister of Justice in the Republic, who was well known and admired in the United States, and also in the President, Dr. Sun Yat Sen, who was born in Hawaii, who has lived there as an exile, and who is a devoted patriot, a sincere Christian and reformer. But Dr. Sun was not elected president by a national convention or popular vote, and the authority of the military commanders who did elect him was by no means clear or undisputed. On the other hand, the Premier, Yuan Shi-Kai, who is still considered to be the man of the hour in China, influenced

governmental opinion in the West by his opposition to a republican form of government. He has, however, been accused of double-dealing, of subtle diplomacy, of a secret preference for a republic—provided he be the president of it. This, coupled with strange moves on his part that were variously explained and never understood, has perplexed those who were at first inclined to support the principle of constitutional monarchy in China. Without anticipating events, the progress of the revolution and the amazing collapse of the Manchu dynasty have demonstrated, first, that China is ripe for a real, not merely nominal, change of régime; that the masses have not been indifferent to misrule and corruption; and that political, economic and fiscal reforms have a sound foundation in national sentiment.

The Chinese Republic, as above stated, has repeatedly petitioned the great western powers for "recognition" in a diplomatic sense. But the powers, including the United States, are slow and careful in such matters. The situation in the northern provinces must be taken into account; the danger of Manchu reprisals and conspiracies cannot be ignored. Moreover, the secession of even a few Chinese provinces, or of Mongolia and Manchuria, would create serious complications. The establishment of the Russian protectorate over Mongolia would lead to demands for "compensation" from Japan and other powers. Chinese integrity is desirable from every point of view if such integrity can possibly be preserved. It is not, therefore, necessarily evidence of hostility to republicanism in the powers to withhold recognition from the Chinese Republic as it exists in the South. The interests of peace, trade, order must be earnestly considered.

Notes

TO THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES

Petition presented by deputation of educators, social workers, and others on December 30, 1911.

The case of the State of California vs. the McNamaras is legally closed.

By confession of their guilt, the trial has been brought to a conclusion swift and indisputable. In all subsequent criminal proceedings involving industrial relations, we trust that the outcome as to guilt or innocence will be as clear and decisive.

But what happens from now on to the McNamaras in San Quentin prison does not concern the American people so profoundly as what happened, is happening, and may happen to workmen who did not and would not use dynamite as a method to secure their ends.

Their case has not been before the tribunal of the law. It comes before a larger tribunal—the social conscience of the nation, of which the law is only a partial expression. The courts accept and interpret the progress which society has made; but progress in a democracy implies the people's freedom to criticise and develop the very civilization which the courts conserve.

With our stupendous manufacturing development, the industrial workers assembled in many cities exceed by thousands the entire populations of whole states a generation ago. Our statutes in the main were originally enacted for the different conditions existing before these industrial changes, and naturally such evolution as there has been, has been dominated by the readily mobilized forces and influences controlled by capital. Here, in part, lies the explanation of that serious distrust which has come to be felt by great masses of workers toward the fabric of our law and the structure and control of the machinery through which we apply it.

In order to arrive at the worker's point of view, it is necessary only to review the long list of occupational diseases, the failure of both employers and the state to prevent them or mitigate their effects, the lack of employers' liability laws, the failure to provide adequate safeguards against accidents in dangerous vocations, the attacks upon the constitutionality of laws to shorten the hours of women and of workers in certain trades, the reluctance of legislatures to abolish child labor—it is necessary only to contrast this dead center of the social machinery with the speed at which it acts to prevent picketing and rioting during strikes. The workingman sees the club of the officer, the bayonet of the militia directed against him in the defense of property, and he believes that the hand of the law, strong in the protection of property, often drops listless whenever measures are proposed to lighten labor's heavy burden. Occasional and imperfect expressions of this underlying feeling reach the surface. Those who dismiss them as sporadic assaults upon the judiciary have no appreciation

of the depth and breadth of the social situation. There is profound restlessness among large groups of labor who feel that there are no organic ways open through which they can act collectively with respect to the thing that most concerns them—that they are thwarted when they get together for common strength and when, not as mutual benefit societies, but as aggregations of men, they set out to mind their business.

Thinking men and women of the nation must ask themselves: What channels are open to American workmen who, through collective effort, seek to better their conditions?

Are the American people prepared to counsel violence as the method to be employed—force, dynamite, intimidation? The answer has been given at Los Angeles: No, and the country affirms the judgment.

Is the channel of political action open? The answer of the spirit and institutions of the American democracy is—Yes; and in increasing numbers, the workmen of the United States are each year turning to the ballot as a way out.

But are there not channels open for economic action to secure industrial justice? The answer made by great groups of employers and employes who jointly, year in and year out, adjust their interests without disturbance, and settle their differences without bitterness, is: Yes. The answer made by equally powerful industrial groups, of which the structural iron trade is in part a sobering example, is—No.

No: in terms of the labor policy which unrestricted capital has deemed itself justified to employ on grounds of self-protection.

No: in terms of discharge of those workmen who, refusing to rely for fair play and security upon the good nature of foremen and superintendents, have attempted organized action.

No: in terms of spy systems and strike breaking organizations equipped to man a job and break the backs of local strikes, whether or no their cause be just.

No: in terms of evictions, injunctions, the very instruments of our self-government turned to root out the simplest forms of democratic action.

No: in terms of the economic disfranchisement of vast groups of American wage-earners.

Who is right?

The American people as a whole must think these things through. Too much hangs on them for mere individual conviction to be the last word. We need more light. Mindful, as the undersigned are, of the important duty which the department of justice

has before it, we hold that the criminal court is not a sufficient instrument through which the democracy can address itself to the economic struggle. The federal grand juries may well concern themselves with those who have carried dynamite across state boundaries. We want light along a more crucial boundary line—the borderland between industry and democracy. We want light on that larger lawlessness which is beyond the view of the criminal court. This is a matter of public defence in which we, as a people, should if necessary invest as much money as we put into a battleship. We appeal to the Federal Government to create a commission, with as great scientific competence, staff, resources, and power to compel testimony; as the Interstate Commerce Commission:—

1.—To investigate (and on this point make a preliminary report within six months) conditions of labor during the last six years in the structural iron trade, including in the study the organizations of employers and employes, the methods and purposes of each, and the relations of each to the other.

2.—To gauge the break-down of our machinery of industrial government by tracing the trend of law and judicial decision through state and federal courts with respect to labor causes (the boycott, the picket, the injunction, the strike); and to examine the exact economic and legal status of the union, the union member, the non-union man, the strike-breaker, the tenant of a company house.

3.—To investigate the economic and social cost of strikes to employers, to workmen, and to the public.

4.—To examine and review the rules and records of trade unions—and employers' associations in their relations to each other; the conditions of the trades in which unions are strong and those in which no unions exist.

5.—To study and make report on the scope and methods and resources of federal and state bureaus of labor to the end that they may meet permanently those responsibilities which—through the work of such a commission would be more adequately defined.

6.—To make special and exhaustive study into the practicability and working principles of schemes of economic government such as the trade legislature in the cloak, suit, and skirt industry, the joint arbitration board—which for seven years controlled the New York building trades, the Wisconsin Industrial Commission, the Canadian Industrial disputes acts, the minimum wage board long established in Australia and recently introduced in England.

Today, as fifty years ago, a house divided against itself cannot stand. We have yet to solve the problems of democracy in its industrial relationships and to solve them along democratic lines. On the same vitality, the same idealism, the same constructive justice of the people which stood the stress of Lincoln's time, we ground our confidence in petitioning the President and Congress of the United States to appoint a commission to investi-

gate, study, and consider the grave problems of internal statesmanship herein set forth.

PANAMA CANAL AND FREE TOLLS

The Director of the Pan American Union has prepared a summarized statement of his position with regard to the question of making the Panama Canal free to the shipping and commerce of all nations. Two interesting paragraphs are reprinted below.

If the United States would experience the largest benefits possible to its foreign commerce from the Panama Canal, it will make this interoceanic waterway as free to the ships of all nations as are the two oceans which it will connect. The only valid reasons for charging tolls are, first, to pay the cost of operation, maintenance and interest on investment, and, second, to protect the transcontinental railways from the competition of a free Canal. If, then, corresponding and compensating advantages in each case will result from a free canal, it should be made free. The increase of the trade of the United States through a free canal will be so much greater than that through a toll canal that this increase in the first year would equal the revenue from tolls for five years, while the increase resulting from a free canal over that of a toll canal would pay nearly twice over the original cost of the canal, or fifty times the cost of annual operation, etc.

A free canal, in addition to increasing the commerce of the United States in ten years to fifty times the cost of operation, maintenance, and interest, will accomplish other results. It will absolutely destroy all possibility, in any shape or manner, of monopoly in interoceanic traffic. It will encourage every ship-owning, operating, or chartering company or individual in the world to build, operate, or charter vessels to use the Canal. It will keep rates between the two coasts of the United States at a minimum and develop an immense traffic between the Atlantic and Gulf ports and those of California, Oregon, and Washington. It will improve to the largest degree the possibilities of trade between the United States and the West or Pacific Coast of the twelve Latin-American countries reaching with vast potential resources for 8,000 miles from Mexico to Chile. It will bring to the ports of the United States and Latin-America vessels of every flag, providing them with abundant shipping facilities and adding greatly to their prosperity. It will inaugurate a new commerce between the Atlantic and Gulf Coasts of the United States and the ports of Asia and Australia, which otherwise would use the Suez Canal or not exist at all.

RELIGIOUS OUTLOOK IN MEXICO

The new president of the Republic of Mexico, Francis I. Madero, Jr., is not a Roman Catholic and does not, it is said, favor Catholics above other bodies. Before entering upon the revolution as leader he is known to have contributed money to Protestants in Mexico, and in one instance to have enabled American Methodists

in Mexico to secure some real estate at nominal cost. He is a Mason and devoted to it, and a liberal religious thinker.

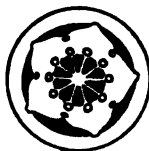
Catholic leaders of Mexico held a national convention soon after the end of the armed difficulty in the field and the departure of President Diaz, with the aim of creating a Catholic party and of nominating a presidential candidate to represent it. Failing to find an available man in its own membership, the convention surprised Mexico by endorsing Madero. It is debated, however, that Madero gave no pledges, and that liberal, Mason, and supporter of the Protestant work, he is free to carry forward Mexico's movement toward absolute religious liberty, which has not yet been attained.

Protestant missionaries in Mexico condemn in strong language reports circulated in the United States to the effect that Mexicans are essentially in slavery, most of them, and guilty of sins against civilization such as slaves might commit. These missionaries say the people are poor, and that the recent agitation is toward democracy, and better improved land, commercial, and moral laws. No injustice is charged by Protestants against the dominant Church, but with President Madero and the new laws and new sentiment, it is to be a thing of the past, they believe.

The claim is made that 8,000,000 of the 10,000,000 people of Mexico are not touched in any way by the Catholic Church. Protestants therefore urge the claims of Mexico as a mission field having a right to expect American assistance. Methodists are in Mexico with 25,000 members, upon such invitation as it is believed was never given to an American body by any foreign field. A committee of native Mexicans, wholly upon their own initiative, went to New York and formally asked them to come into their country.

Aiming solely to reach with the Gospel Mexicans who are not now in any Church, Protestants of all American names are making plans to enlarge their work. They believe the Baptists and Episcopalians are already there in strongest numbers and best organized form. An Independent Presbyterian Church of Mexico has been created within recent years. It is said in several executive committees of the great Protestant missionary societies that their appropriations for work in Mexico will probably be much increased when their next annual budgets are made.

—*Church News Service.*





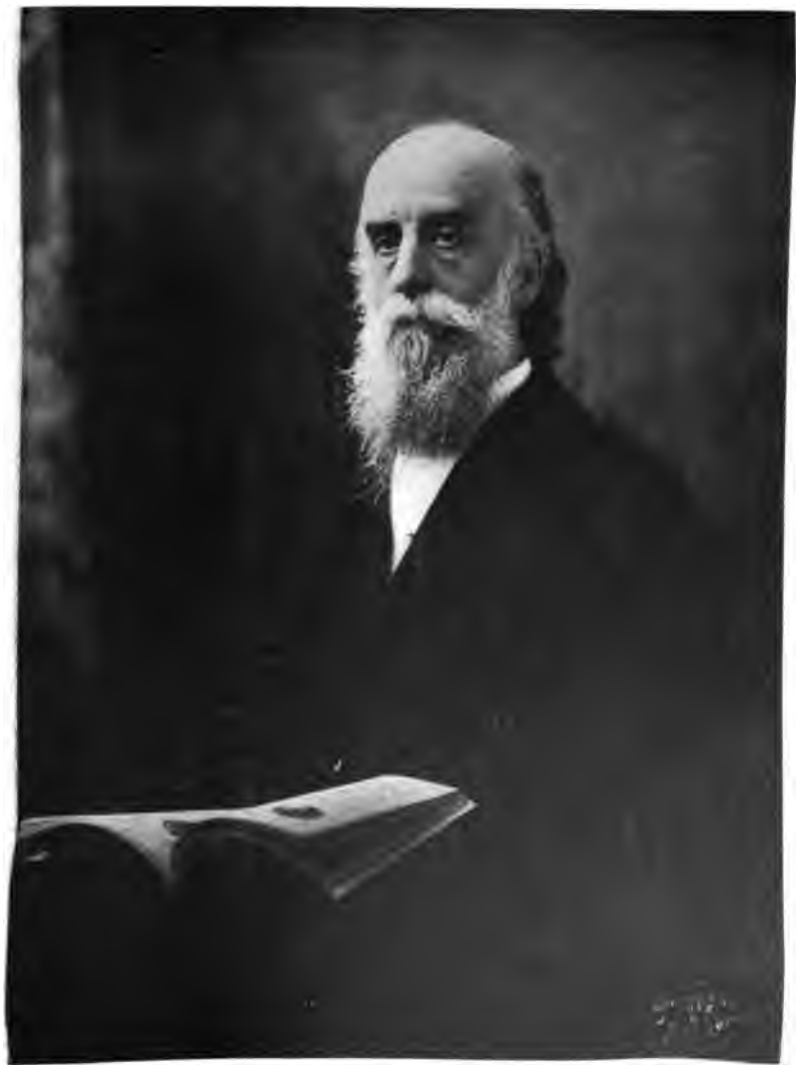
VII. Journalism and Humor*

Benjamin A. Heydrick, A. M.

IF that visitor from the planet Mars whom we have been expecting for so long were actually to arrive it is probable that he would find nothing more interesting or more typical of our world than a daily newspaper. And supposing that he came from a planet where all life proceeded in the orderly fashion suggested by the regularity with which the canals appear and disappear, what impression would he gain from the morning paper? In staring headlines it proclaims that a train has been wrecked with the loss of a score of lives, that robbing and murder are matters of daily occurrence; that two nations are engaged in an inhuman war; that a great empire has been overthrown by a revolution. "What a world!" he would say; "When does the next airship leave for Mars?" And then we can imagine his American manager trying to reassure him by saying that some of these things happened on the other side of the world, and others are not as bad as the papers make out. "You can't believe more than half you see in the newspapers anyhow," he would add, and thus leave the Martian to hesitate between the conception of a world of crime and disaster, or a world of liars.

If he remained to fulfil his lecture engagements on our planet, he would come to realize that the newspaper, instead of giving a view of life as a whole, deals with a cer-

*See CHAUTAUQUAN for September and October, 1911, for instalments I and II, The Novel, November for III, the Short Story, December for IV, the Drama, January, 1912, for V, Poetry, February for VI, Essays.



Lyman Abbott, editor of *The Outlook*



Joseph Pulitzer, of the *New York World*, one of the men who introduced sensational journalism

(From painting by Sargent)



Henry Watterson, of the *Louisville Courier-Journal*, last of the famous editorial writers of the old school



S. S. McClure, who developed a new type of magazine

tain class of happenings which it calls news, and these happenings are chiefly unusual or abnormal occurrences. If he were a wise man, then, he would learn to read the news upside down, so to speak. Of the revolution in China he would observe, "I see that this country has remained peacefully under one government for a long time." Of a robbery or a murder he would say, "I note that your people as a whole are most honest and law-abiding. In this city of a million people, only four crimes were committed yesterday." Of a report that a senator had been guilty of bribery he would say, "I see that you expect a high standard of men in public office, and that you are seldom disappointed." Thus he would grow wise in our ways, not only through what the newspapers printed but through what they did not print. And in this way must we interpret the picture of our life which journalism presents. When an editor gives prominence to a crime or a scandal, he does so relying upon a community whose moral sense will be shocked at such things. Let us remember, then, when we deplore the spotted and ugly image of life which we find in the newspaper that the very prominence given to such details is evidence of a social community whose life is clean and whose ideals are high. With this general premise let us examine more closely the periodical press of our country.

The first thing that impresses one is its magnitude. The daily papers number 2,472, the weeklies 16,269, the monthlies 2,769. Tri-weekly and quarterly publications bring the total up to 22,806. Of these one group of two hundred daily papers have a circulation of ten millions, while five magazines have a total circulation of over five millions. Of the others few are below a thousand; if we take two thousand as the average, it gives a total circulation of fifty-nine millions, or enough to provide a daily paper, a weekly, and a monthly magazine for every family in the United States.

And what is the nature of this reading matter which we

devour so eagerly? Taking the newspaper first, the daily paper of to-day is the result of an evolution. The early journals in America and elsewhere were sadly lacking in news. They published such as came in their way through gossip in a tavern or conversation with the captain of a sailing packet, but they made no attempt to establish channels of news through which they might obtain the earliest intelligence of important affairs. James Gordon Bennett the elder, founder of the *New York Herald*, first developed newsgathering as a great department of journalism. During the Mexican War his special service, by telegraph and post riders, brought news of military movements to the public even before the government at Washington had it. The special field correspondent, the exclusive telegraph wire, the chartered dispatch boat, the reporter at the police station, the regular correspondent in all news centers—all these things, so important in our journalism, we owe to Bennett.

The second important current of influence was the development of the editorial. Horace Greeley, more than any other man, made the editorial page a power. Gifted with a marvellous memory, a wide knowledge of public affairs, and a pen that he could wield like a bludgeon, he built up a tremendous influence for the *New York Tribune* through this power alone. The third great name in the development of journalism is that of Charles A. Dana. He saw that in the news columns there was as much chance for artistic writing as in the editorials. To him an item of news was a "story," as it is called in newspaper offices today. Now anyone who has tried to repeat an anecdote knows that the effect of a story is partly in the incidents, and much more in the manner of telling them. So the artfully-told news story, with its climax as effective as the climax in a play; the story with an unexpected slant of humor or of pathos that gives the effect of literature; the headline that crisply states the substance of a column, or perhaps interprets the whole as with a flash—these things we

owe to him of whom Eugene Field said he needed no other epitaph than:

Here sleeps the man who run
That best 'nd brightest paper, the Noo York Sun.

The *Sun*, now passed from the control of the Dana family, has changed its style materially, but for three decades it was the light to newspaper men all over the country, and has wrought a permanent change in journalistic style.

The fourth current was given by two men, Joseph Pulitzer and W. R. Hearst, who introduced sensational journalism. The faults of this are but too evident: its exaggeration, its publication of details of private life, its exploiting of crime and scandal. But sensational journalism has some things to its credit. Other papers were content to print news as it happened; the sensational journal made news. One paper took up adulterated food in grocery stores. When it began its campaign, of five hundred samples purchased, ninety-six per cent were dangerously adulterated. After the campaign, only nine per cent were found to be adulterated. The abuses in more than one state institution have been remedied after a sensational exposure. The fight of the people against a gas company or a street railway has more than once been won by the aid of a "yellow" journal.

These four currents, the development of news-gathering, the power of the editorial, the artistic telling of news, and the striving after sensationalism at any cost, have influenced in some degree the whole of our daily press. And what is the newspaper as moulded by these influences? Its contents may be considered under three heads: news matter, editorials, and advertisements. The news matter has already been commented upon. Much of it is sensational, much merely trivial, such as the society news and "personal mention," and that part which attempts criticism, such as the literary and dramatic columns, is apt to be mere advertising matter thinly disguised. The whole effect lacks dignity, and seriousness, and good taste.

The responsibility for this lies not solely with the editor or the publisher. His aim is to please the public, and he follows the tastes of that public more closely than most people realize. In the office of one great newspaper, daily reports are received from all over the city by sections. If in the financial district a number of new readers bought the paper yesterday, or if in a residential district the sales dropped off, both facts are known and must be explained, for circulation is the very breath of life to a newspaper. If, then, the newspaper as a whole is lacking in dignity, in seriousness, and in good taste, we may fairly infer that the great mass of its readers is indifferent to these things. As in politics, in the long run a city gets as good government as it deserves, so in journalism the readers of any paper, taken as a whole, get about as good a journal as they deserve.

But if the news columns are not particularly satisfactory, the editorial page should restore the balance. Here we may expect to find calm, dispassionate minds weighing passing events, selecting those of real importance, and pointing out their significance. Do we find these things? How many of us are in the habit of looking to the editorial page for guidance? How many of us read that page first? How many of us read it at all? Note the newspaper readers in a street car, and see what page they are perusing. The news columns, the sporting page, the financial page, the woman's page, even the advertisements have more readers than the editorials. The publisher himself tacitly admits the relative lack of importance of the editorial page by burying it in the middle of the paper. When Mr. Hearst wanted to make people read editorials, he placed them on the outside of the paper, and set them in black type with large headlines.

The editorial page, in theory the most important part of the paper, in fact has waned in power to such an extent that it is no longer a significant force in moulding public opinion. There are several causes for this. For one thing,

it has become an impersonal utterance. The New York farmer of a generation ago unfolded his *Tribune* with the remark "Well, let's see what old Horace has to say this week." The dominating power of a great personality was felt by every reader. Who knows by whom the *Tribune* editorials are written now? Who cares? Where are the great editorial writers of to-day, the men who succeeded Greeley and Dana and Grady and Murat Halstead? There is Henry Watterson,—last of the old school,—and Arthur Brisbane,—latest of the new; are there any others who can be said to have a national or even state-wide reputation? We have twice as many papers as we had a generation ago, and not half as many noted editors. The men who write the editorials on our great papers are mere employés; the proprietor dictates the policy of the paper, they write what they are told. It follows that their work, excellent as it may be in quality, is often lacking in the sincerity which comes only with strong conviction. It is said that many editorials upholding the rights of capital are written by men who are rank Socialists. It may be so, but such writing will not convince. It is apt to be perfunctory, or at least colorless. Do we not feel this in much of the editorial writing of to-day? The newspaper proprietor is not to be blamed too severely: he knows that a vigorous attack upon anything is apt to cause trouble in most unexpected quarters. As the editor of a Kansas paper once remarked, "We have been in the newspaper business twenty years, and we have come to the conclusion that the only thing that can safely be attacked is the man-eating shark." Let us imagine again our Martian looking over our newspaper and saying: "I observe that you have certain men whose duty it is to write the news, and others who interpret it. These editors must be very wise men and are, no doubt, highly paid?"

"Well, no, the most highly paid man on a newspaper is the advertising manager."

"Indeed. But of course the editors come next?"

"No, the special correspondents come next."

"And then the wise men?"

"No, the best reporters are better paid than the editors."

"Indeed. Then I marvel that any wise men should be found to write your editorials."

This waning of the importance of the editorial page can best be understood after a discussion of the next feature of the newspaper, the advertising columns.

If one were to ask the question: What is the purpose of a newspaper? the answer would be, nine times in ten, "To print the news." And nine times in ten the answer would be wrong. The purpose of a newspaper is to make money for its owner. There may be other purposes, one or another of which may modify its policy for a time, but this motive, in most cases, is the determining one. Now the income of a newspaper is obtained partly from sales, partly from advertising. The ratio which these two bear is not generally understood. When you buy a twenty-page newspaper for a cent, you are scarcely paying the cost of the white paper. All the rest—the telegraphic tolls, the salaries of reporters and editors, the cost of type-setting and printing, and distribution, is paid by the advertiser. To take a concrete illustration, the *New York Times* has a circulation of 175,000 copies. At one cent a copy, that means \$1,750 a day. But the newsdealer must have his profit; he buys the papers at sixty cents per hundred, so that the paper receives \$1,050. Now the *Times* publishes about eighty columns of advertising, which at regular rates amounts to something over \$6,000. That means that for every dollar the newspaper receives from its readers, it receives six from its advertisers. Now from this certain important consequences result. The interests of readers and advertisers are not always identical. In Boston, for example, an elevator fell in a department store, killing one of the passengers. That was news, important news to the shoppers of Boston, yet not a Boston paper published it. In Philadelphia during the street-car strike, there were days when mobs were stoning cars and injuring passengers, yet the

department stores, fearing the loss of their business, suppressed this news so effectively that the people of Philadelphia had to buy New York papers to learn the truth.

Nor is the stifling of news the only way in which advertisers exert their power. They may procure the insertion of news matter favorable to their interests, they may even modify the editorial page, if not control it. It is true that there are notable instances where such attempts to influence newspapers have failed entirely; it is also true that some newspapers seek such bargains. Not long ago it was reported that a certain metropolitan daily quietly offered that for a full-page advertisement they would throw in an editorial by their leading writer.

Do you object to this? What have you to say, when you are paying one cent, and the advertiser a thousand dollars? The moral of it all is that daily journalism has become thoroughly commercialized; making a newspaper is no longer a profession but a business; its aim is not to inform and instruct but to pay dividends.

Let us examine this advertising more closely. It is seen in its fullest development in the Sunday newspaper. Taking the current issue of one of these, we may study its advertising by assuming that the reader will respond to it, and inquire how such response will affect him. One group of advertisements includes the announcements of dry-goods stores and other firms offering standard commodities. These we may class as favorable to the reader, informing him where he can satisfy actual wants. A second group of advertising proclaims the merits of various brands of beer and whiskey. The effect of an increased consumption of these articles would certainly be harmful to the consumer. A third is the patent-medicine advertising, with its promises of impossible cures. The sales-manager of a widely-known "cure" for baldness has not a hair on his head. That many of these remedies contain a high per cent of alcohol, and that others contain dangerous drugs in large quantities, puts this whole class of advertising under grave suspicion.

In a fourth group we find what may be called petty deception, such as the advertisements of clairvoyants, fortune tellers, and the like. Yet as these clairvoyants often advise their clients to invest in worthless schemes, and share in the money thus gained, the petty deception quickly passes into the larger one, so this advertising must be classed as fraudulent. In the fifth group are the out-and-out swindlers. They begin with so-called "loan sharks," who advertise loans on long terms, "no security, no publicity, all strictly confidential." How they operate has been shown in New York City recently. One man who had borrowed \$40, paid back over \$120, and still owed more than \$60! By actual testimony they charged interest at the rate of 300 per cent. Operating on a larger scale are the concerns which sell stock in some worthless mining or industrial venture. Orange groves in Florida, rubber plantations in Mexico, oil wells in California, silver mines in Canada, all have been used as lures to persuade people that a dollar would grow into ten or twenty if you only planted it firmly in another man's pocket. One such promoter took a whole floor in a prominent business building for his offices, and bought advertising space by the half page. He is now in the penitentiary.

What of the newspaper's responsibility for all this? When it accepts an advertisement knowing that its purpose is to defraud its readers, is it not a party to the dishonesty? It is but fair to say that some newspapers have a different standard, refusing to print doubtful and dishonest advertising. But such papers are the exception.

In this hasty view of journalism, many things have been omitted. The enterprise of our journalists is everywhere acknowledged; the agencies for gathering news, such as the Associated Press, which collects news from everywhere and supplies it to hundreds of papers, are marvellously complete; the reports of news, considering the rapidity with which they must be prepared, are accurate and truthful to a high degree; the reporters themselves, many of them men



Norman Hapgood, editor of *Collier's Weekly*, a journal that is aggressive and progressive



Finley Peter Dunne, creator of "Mr. Dooley"
(*Photograph by Davis and Eickemeyer*)



Sincerely,
George Ade

George Ade, teller of "Fables in Slang"



Walt Mason of the *Emporia Gazette*, whose verses reach ten
million readers daily

with college training, write clear, vivid accounts that are often real literature. In fact the news columns of our papers have improved as the editorial columns have fallen off. And not less important is the part that newspapers have taken in advancing public causes. The story of how the Tweed ring was overthrown by the *New York Times* is a matter of history. More recent is the work of another paper in securing the reduction of the gas rate from one dollar to eighty cents. The paper not only gave the weight of its news and editorial columns to the cause, but engaged lawyers to push trial cases through court after court, until after a fight of years it won the victory. It is true that the gas company was not an advertiser; it is true again that this campaign strengthened the hold of the paper upon its readers, and gained many new ones, so that the business office was well satisfied with the result. The same paper began a crusade against race-track gambling, but suddenly stopped. One of the heavy advertisers in the paper, it came out later, was the owner of a race track. So the taint of commercialism is often to be found even when the newspaper appears to be the unselfish champion of the people's cause.

Financial considerations are not the only thing that may warp the attitude of a newspaper. Sometimes political influence controls a paper, sometimes the personal ambition of the owner, and to this must be added minor social and personal considerations. In some offices there are actual lists of persons who are always to be favorably mentioned, and others who are not to be mentioned at all. Thus in many ways the paper comes to present an imperfect, even a distorted image of events.

At this point some defender of our newspapers may interrupt with the remark: "Well, suppose our newspapers aren't perfect, is there anything better in any other country? Is there anything as good?" It is a fair question. To answer it in part, a study was made of four journals, each

among the best of its kind: the *New York Times*, the *London Times*, the *Vossische Zeitung* of Berlin, and *Le Journal* of Paris. The table below shows the relative size of each paper, and the amount of space devoted respectively to news, editorial matter and advertising.

	Total Pages	Total Cols.	No. of columns devoted to		
			News	Editorial	Advt.
New York Times	22	154	70	4	80
London Times	22	132	93	3	36
Vossische Zeitung	40	120	46	1½	72½
Le Journal	10	60	30	2	28

The comparison shows that in size London and New York papers are about equal; the *London Times* has fewer columns, but they are wider than in American papers. The Berlin paper has more pages, but they are a third smaller, so that the amount printed is about the same. The Paris journals are about half as large as ours. It should be said that in no other country is there anything like our swollen Sunday editions. In the relative space given to news and advertising the difference is marked. The *New York Times* divides its columns about equally, eighty of one hundred and fifty-four being given to advertising. The *London Times* gives only about one-fourth of its space to advertising. This is explained by the fact that it charges six cents a copy, so that the reader pays a large share of the cost of the paper. In other London papers which sell at one cent, the advertising is equal to ours. In Berlin and Paris, the ratio of news to advertising is about the same as in New York. So if journalism is commercialized in the United States it appears to be equally commercialized in other countries.

	Politics	Scandal	Society Gossip	Casualties	War	Crime	Finance	Religion	Art	Drama	Music	Sporting News
New York Times..	7	1	4	1	1	4	5	1	1	2	1	3
London Times	10	0	2	1	2	2	10	2	0	1	1	4
Vossische Zeitung ..	7	0	0	1	5	0	7	1	1	2	1	1
Le Journal	9	1	5	3	5	7	2	0	0	1	1	1

A second analysis, made to determine the kind of news each paper emphasized, as indicated by placing it at the top of the column with a large heading, is tabulated on the preceding page.

This comparison shows several interesting things. Foreign journals give even more space to politics than do our own; in society news, the Paris paper stands first, as it does in prominence given to casualties and crime. Of financial news London papers print most, London being the financial center of the world. Paris does not consider religion particularly important; with the English, sporting news stands next to finance and politics.

Now there is nothing in this showing to be ashamed of, nor, if we carry the examination into the advertising columns, is the result unfavorable. The Paris paper advertises boldly "Certain Methods of Winning on the Stock Exchange," fortune-tellers and quacks announce themselves, and one remembers that at the time of the collapse of the French Panama Canal company it came out that the leading newspapers had received large sums of money, not in pay for advertising but as a direct bribe. The *London Times* is, of course, as respectable as a bishop, but the cheaper London papers publish freely the advertisements of stock-swindling schemes. In one important field, however, the daily press of England and the continent is superior to ours: the department of criticism. The reviews of new books, the musical and dramatic departments, are written by men of eminence, and their articles have at once a seriousness of matter and a finish of style that is rare in our journals.

Comparing again on the basis of the number of newspapers published in the various countries we have:

United States	22,806
Great Britain	9,500
Germany	8,049
France	6,681

If we compare this with the respective population

of these countries, we find that in the United States there is in round numbers, a newspaper to every 4,100 of population; in Great Britain, one for every 4,700; in Germany, one for every 7,800; in France, one for every 5,900. In respect to the numbers of papers published, we lead all other countries, both absolutely and relative to population.

In speaking of our newspapers we noted the gradual decline in the importance of the editorial page, a decline which has accompanied the increasing proportion of space given to advertising. Gradually people are coming to realize that our journals are seldom the unselfish champions of the common good that they assume to be.

But side by side with this loss of confidence in the newspaper has grown up an increasing dependence upon another class of periodicals, the weekly and monthly magazines. These, like the newspapers, derive their revenue far more from advertising than from subscriptions, and yet they are more independent of advertising influence. For example, a city newspaper could not be published long if it were deprived of the advertising of the dry-goods stores. Their influence, if they choose to use it, is therefore very great. But a magazine could give up a whole class of advertising and still make money. Nay, it has done this very thing. The advertisements of fraudulent stock-selling schemes, once occupying pages and pages, have disappeared from all the better magazines; patent medicine advertising, which paid princely sums, has gone also. The leading magazines have "cleaned house" rapidly in recent years. Not content with this, some of the more influential, such as *Collier's* and the *Ladies' Home Journal* started a vigorous crusade against patent-medicine advertising, which has even led some of the newspapers to drop this class of matter.

Further, the magazines are more free from political bias. You will find a magazine urging the election of a Republican in New York and a Democrat in Ohio, perhaps in the same issue, with equal zeal and sincerity. Such

journals stand for good government; the newspapers stand for a party, or sometimes a mere faction within a party.

As a result of this independence, both political and financial, these journals have more freedom in printing the news than a daily paper. For example the famous sugar fraud cases were on trial in New York City. A corporation worth hundreds of millions was accused of defrauding the government, and of doing it by the same disgraceful trick with which a corner grocer cheats his poor customers—by the use of false scales. The frauds had gone on for years and amounted to millions of dollars. How was this big news item handled by the press of New York City? Some quietly ignored it, some printed a few paragraphs, which gave no adequate idea of the extent or the nature of the fraud. The *Outlook* made it the chief feature of several issues, with illustration and editorial comment.

The editorial pages of these journals are on a different plane from those of the daily newspaper. It is not only that they are more carefully written, and with fuller information, that would follow from the fact that more time is allowed, but they are different in spirit. The so-called "progressive" movement in the Republican party was taken up by journals like *Collier's* while the newspapers were making jokes about it. In such ways as this the weekly and monthly journals have undertaken the work of really guiding public opinion which the daily papers have almost ceased to perform.

In the monthly magazines the most evident fact is the great increase in number in recent years. Twenty years ago there were *Harper's* and *Scribner's*, the *Century*, and the *Atlantic* and that was practically all. The cheapest of these was twenty-five cents, the others were thirty-five. Then at about the same time Frank A. Munsey and John Brisbin Walker saw that there was a chance for a magazine that would reach, not the cultivated few, but the reading

many. The result was the first ten-cent magazines: *Munsey's* and the *Cosmopolitan*. One sought to attract readers by its fiction, the other by journalistic features, and by profuse illustration, being the first magazine to use color printing. Both were successful. Then came S. S. McClure with a new idea. He believed that the people were interested quite as much in fact as in fiction, and planned his magazine accordingly. Biographies of Lincoln and Napoleon, accounts of scientific discoveries, investigations of political and social conditions by trained writers: such were the features which made *McClure's* a success. Some years later *Everybody's Magazine*, which had been jogging along peacefully in Philadelphia, came into the hands of John A. Thayer and Erman J. Ridgway. They secured Thomas W. Lawson to write his articles on "Frenzied Finance." The picturesque English in which Lawson told his story, his audacity in attacking the masters of capital in America, his successful pose as a champion of the common good, so caught the public fancy that the circulation of *Everybody's* ran up to a million copies. This was the beginning of the "muck-raking" type of magazine article, a term which has been applied indiscriminately to much excellent and fruitful work as well as to much that is merely sensational. These four currents of influence, the appeal to an intellectual middle class, the prominence given to illustration, the fact-story, the "muck-raking" type of article, are seen in all our popular magazines today, and have even modified some of the older and more dignified monthlies. Perhaps the most important of these is the "fact story." This may be political, as Lincoln Steffens's articles on "The Shame of the Cities;" it may be economic, as Miss Tarbell's "History of the Standard Oil Company;" it may be sociological, as Ray Stannard Baker's "Following the Color Line," a study of the negro population. In all the method is the same. A skilled writer undertakes the series, he reads widely, travels about the country in search of

material, interviews men best informed, and so prepares a series of articles that make not only interesting reading, but often a real contribution to knowledge.

Now this feature, so common with us, has no counterpart in English magazines. It would seem to show that a taste for serious reading is more widespread here than in England.

So our magazines, weekly and monthly, may serve to modify the unfavorable impression given by our newspapers. If the one suggests a nation busying itself with trifles, eager for gossip, morbid in its curiosity, unthinking, and easily deceived, the other suggests a great hunger for knowledge, a taste for good literature, an appreciation of art, a keen interest in the great social and economic problems that are the chief concern of the leaders of the world's thought to-day. The truth lies between these statements. The American at the lowest end of the scale is quite as bad—is worse—than the worst of our newspapers. The American at—we shall not say the top of the scale, for magazines whose circulation aggregates more than five millions cannot be said to appeal only to a select few—the American, then, of the middle class, must be credited with the qualities of our best journalism.

It remains to speak briefly of a class of writers who, almost from the beginning of our literature, have imparted to it a distinctive quality—our humorists. From the days of Franklin to those of Mark Twain we have been producing humor in sufficient quantities not only to satisfy a strong home demand, but to have a great deal for export. The balance of trade in this article is largely in our favor. It is of all degrees, from the "comic" supplement of the Sunday paper to the mellow philosophy of "Mr. Dooley." At its worst it is often irreverent, sometimes vulgar; at its best it is a genial satire upon our civilization, as truthful and as telling as a *Spectator* paper by Addison. The subject naturally connects itself with journalism, since most of our

humor appears in this form. No newspaper but has its funny column; smaller papers borrow their wit, larger ones keep a jester of their own. Thus Eugene Field had his column, "Sharps and Flats," in the *Chicago News*; while readers of the New York *Evening Mail* have learned to turn first to the column headed "Always in Good Humor," by F. P. Adams. Other writers, such as George Ade, George Fitch and Walt Mason, have their work syndicated so that it appears in hundreds of newspapers. Walt Mason's "Lineless Rhymes from Kansas" which are as wholesome in tone as they are certain to bring a smile, appear in two hundred daily newspapers with a combined circulation of ten million readers. George Ade's "Fables in Slang" hit off the foibles of the average American with a deftness of touch and an economy of material that suggest the art of the best short story writers. Peter Finley Dunne, the creator of "Mr. Dooley," has treated subjects of current interest with a humor and an insight that show him a philosopher in motley.

What are the characteristics of these writers who today hit the American sense of humor most surely? For one thing they are all something more than mere funny men. A bit of social satire, of homely philosophy, of keen interpretation, always lurks behind the smile. A fable of George Ade's is apt to provoke the comment "That's so," instead of "That's funny." And thus we have the paradox that our humorists prove us to be a serious people.

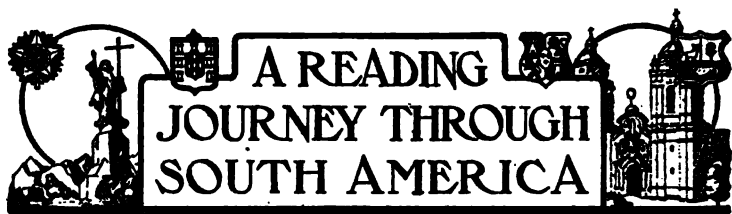
Again, this humor recognizes certain boundaries beyond which it does not pass. For one thing it is clean. When one remembers how the dialogue in modern French comedy usually has to be modified when produced on our stage, it is evident that our taste in this matter is different from theirs, and the difference is to our credit. For another thing, our best humorists are seldom irreverent. To American readers, the most brilliant English humorist of today, Bernard Shaw, often seems irreverent, at times a mocker

to whom nothing is sacred. Does this show that enough of the old Puritan spirit yet remains to make us resent the attempt to trifle with the deepest things?

It is curious that it should be from our humorists that we draw the conclusion that as a people we are serious, clean-minded, and God-fearing, yet such is the fair inference from the facts.

BOOKS OF AMERICAN HUMOR

- Adams, Franklin P.—Tobogganing on Parnassus.
 Ade, George—Fables in Slang; True Bills; People You Know; The Girl Proposition; In Pastures New; Forty Modern Fables; Breaking into Society.
 Bangs, John Kendrick—Houseboat on the Styx; Coffee and Re-partee; Three Weeks in Politics; The Idiot; Olympian Nights.
 Butler, Ellis P.—Pigs is Pigs.
 Burdette, Robert J.—The Rise and Fall of the Moustache.
 Burgess, Gelett—Are You a Bromide?; The Purple Cow, etc.
 Clemens, Samuel L. (Mark Twain)—Extracts from Adam's Diary; Eve's Diary; Captain Stormfield's Visit to Heaven; Editorial Wild Oats; The Man that Corrupted Hadleyburg.
 Colby, Frank M.—Constrained Attitudes.
 Dunne, Peter Finley—Mr. Dooley in Peace and War; Mr. Dooley in the Hearts of His Countrymen; Dissertations by Mr. Dooley; Mr. Dooley Says; Mr. Dooley's Opinions; Mr. Dooley's Philosophy; Observations by Mr. Dooley.
 Fitch, George—At Good Old Siwash.
 Flower, Elliott—Policeman Flynn.
 Hegan, Alice C.—Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch.
 Herford, Oliver—Cynic's Calendar; Rubaiyat of a Persian Kitten; The Bashful Earthquake; Child's Primer of Natural History; Little Book of Bores.
 Irwin, Wallace—Letters of a Japanese Schoolboy; Love Sonnets of a Hoodlum.
 Lorimer, George H.—Letters of a Self-made Merchant to His Son; Old Gorgon Graham.
 Mason, Walt.—Lineless Rhymes from Kansas.
 Masson, Thomas L.—A Corner in Women.
 Nye, Edgar W.—Comic History of the United States; A Guest at the Ludlow.
 Reed, Myrtle—Book of Clever Beasts.
 Sabin, Edwin L.—When You Were a Boy.
 Shute, Henry A.—Real Diary of a Real Boy; Farming It; Plupy, the Real Boy.
 Stockton, Frank R.—Rudder Grange; The Squirrel Inn; The House of Martha.
 Strunsky, Simeon—The Patient Observer.
 Wells, Carolyn—A Phenomenal Fauna.



VII. Chile*

Harry Weston VanDyke†

“CHILE,” which, by a curious coincidence, had about the same significance in the Inca language that our word “chilly” has in English, is the name that was originally given by the Incas to that part of the Pacific slope of the Andes which lies beyond the river Maule, the southern boundary of their great empire. At the time of the Spanish conquest, the first Governor and Captain-General, Pedro de Valdivia, dubbed it “Nueva Estremadura,” after his native province in Spain, and so called it in his official communications, yet not only did the Inca name cling to the country south of the Maule but soon it was popularly applied to that in the north as well, as far up as Peru. And so when, some years afterwards (says the historian Rosales), the Emperor Charles V. of Germany, who was also King of Spain, was negotiating the marriage of his son Philip with Mary, Queen of England, and was told that, being a sovereign in her own right, she would enter into such an alliance only with a reigning monarch, he caused Philip to be crowned King of Chile, and thus incidentally, in dis-

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This series began in THE CHAUTAUQUAN of September, 1911, with an article on “Discovery and Conquest,” which was followed in October by one on “Colonial Period and War of Independence,” in November by “Brazil,” and in December by “Argentina.” The January, 1912, issue held “Uruguay, Paraguay, and Bolivia,” and the February, “Peru.”

This article should be read as preceding the article on Peru which appeared in the last issue.

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tinguishing that colony above his other American possessions, confirmed its original name, and Chile it has been called ever since.

The territory of the present republic consists of a strip of land of most extraordinary conformation lying between the main Cordillera of the Andes and the sea. It has an average width of less than 100 miles, yet stretches for nearly 3,000 miles from a point in the tropics considerably above the center of the continent, clear down to Cape Horn, crossing 38 degrees of latitude. A strip of the same length in North America would reach from Key West to northern Labrador, or, if measured along the Rocky Mountains, from Mexico to the Yukon in Alaska. Reckoned in square miles, it is larger than any country in Europe except Russia, though it has a population, according to the last census (1907), of only 3,254,451, less than that of the city and suburbs of Paris or of New York.

On ordinary maps this narrow Chilean half of the Andean region looks like a mere strip of coast traversed by a single range. As a consequence, it is not generally understood by those who have not visited the country that there is really here, as in Peru and Ecuador, a double formation, connected by transverse ridges in places but perfectly distinct, known as the Andes proper and the coast range or western Cordillera. Between the two systems is a vast plateau, called the central valley, which begins in the northern Province of Atacama, and, gradually decreasing in height, extends south for 700 miles, with an average width of from fifty to sixty miles, through the Province of Llanquihue, about two-thirds of the way down the coast, where it disappears with the coast range itself in the long series of groups of islands into which the shore line is broken up. From its culminating point back of Santiago, the main Cordillera also decreases in height towards the south, but, instead of disappearing with the coast range, extends throughout the whole length of the country, from Peru to the southernmost islands of the

Fuegian archipelago, forming the most magnificent background imaginable to the view from the sea.

In the northern section, between the Bolivian frontier and Coquimbo, there are more than thirty extinct or dormant volcanoes of great altitude—Toroni, 21,340 feet, about four miles, high, Pular, 21,325 feet high, Iquima, 20,275 feet, Aucasquilucha, 20,260 feet, Llullaillaco, 20,253 feet, San José, 20,020 feet, and Socompa, 19,940 feet, and many others over 17,000 feet. Imagine these in contrast with Etna (10,875 feet) and Vesuvius, which is only 3,800 feet, not as high as the cones of some of them alone. South of the Province of Copaiabo, the main range itself develops a plateau formation that is crossed by several relatively low passes, such as the Portezuelo de Come Caballo (14,530 feet), Los Patos (11,700 feet), and, farther south, on a line with Valparaíso, the Uspallata Cumbre (12,795 feet). Although little used even now because of its extremely rugged character, Los Patos is associated with perhaps the most memorable event in the war of independence. There, in the execution of a strategic movement rivaling that of Hannibal in the Pyrenees and Napoleon's crossing of the Alps, the Liberator San Martín safely made his way through with his whole army in 1817—artillery, impedimenta and all—and, within five days, joined forces with the Chilean hero O'Higgins, surprised the royalist army awaiting him near the Cumbre below, fought the great battle of Chacabuco and entered Santiago in triumph.

But this lower Uspallata Pass, which has always been the principal means of land communication with Argentina, was destined to become famous in another way, because it was the place chosen as the most suitable for the route of the Chilean-Argentine transcontinental railroad, connection between the eastern and western sections of which was established in April, 1910, by completion of a tunnel under the Cumbre (top), two miles long and half a mile beneath, a work of the utmost importance, for, aside from the mat-

ter of comfort and saving of time, it has made it possible to go from one country to the other by the land route in winter, when the pass is covered with drifts and the deadly winds and snow storms are so likely to whirl down on the traveller at any time that few except the hardy mail-carriers ever dare attempt it. It is in this neighborhood that the mountains attain their greatest altitude. A little way to the north and visible from the Cumbre is the "Monarch of the Andes," Aconcagua, which, according to the record at the Harvard University observatory in Arequipa, Peru, is 24,760 feet (more than four miles and a half) high, the highest in the world, it is now regarded next to Mt. Everest in the Himalayas. In his interesting story of the ascent of Aconcagua, Sir Martin Conway, one of the very few who succeeded in accomplishing it, describes the view from a point near the lesser of the two summits.

"At last I heard a shout and looked up and saw Maquignaz a yard or two above my head," he says, "standing on the crest of the bed of snow that crowned the *arête*. In a moment I was beside him and Argentina lay at our feet. The southern snow face, delusively precipitous though actually as steep as snow can lie, dropped in a single fall to the glacier two miles below. To the right and left for over a mile there stretched, like the fine edge of an incurved blade, the sharp snow *arête* that reaches from the slightly lower southern summit to the northern. It forms the top edge of the great snow slope down which we were looking and is only visible from the Horcones valley side as a delicate silver crest edging the rocks. At many points it overhung in big cornices, like frozen waves about to break.

"The day had thus far been fine, but clouds were now gathering in the east. Fearful lest the view might soon be blotted out, I took a few photographs before moving on. The view abroad from this point differed little from that which we finally obtained. To the south was Tupungato (22,408 feet), a majestic pile of snow, over which even more majestic clouds were presently to mount aloft. To the north was the still grander Mercedario (22,315 feet), beheld around the flank of the final rocks. In the west were the hills, dropping lower and lower to the Chilean shore, and then the purple ocean. To the northeast, like another ocean, lay the flat surface of the Argentine pampas. Elsewhere the Cordillera, in long parallel ridges running roughly north and south, stretched its great length along, crowding together into an inextricable tangle the distant peaks, partly hidden by the near summits, which alone interrupted the completeness of the panorama."

All the high peaks are of volcanic origin and those from Mercedario to Tupungato are precipitous and craggy and decked with great glaciers. The sky line is jagged like the walls of a ruined castle. The rocks below the snow are richly colored. There are palisades of dark reds and browns, slopes of purple streaked with yellow and other gorgeous combinations, and, down in the lower valleys, brilliant greens. The streams of melting snow pouring down the sides seem tinted with these varied colors; in some places they flow red, as with blood from the breast of a giant; the main branch of the Rio Mendoza above Cuevas, on the Argentine side seem pink, and, lower down, after mixing with the waters of its tributaries, a golden brown.

The next great division of the range is defined on the north by the Maipo Pass and Las Demas Pass on the south. Its principal heights are between 16,000 and 17,000 feet. From Las Demas on, few are over 10,000 feet, and, beyond Copahue, near the source of the Biobio river, the average is about 9,000. Beyond the volcano Tronador (the Thunderer), in the latitude of Lake Llanquihue, as far as Lake Buenos Aires, it consists of a series of Swiss-like mountains, still decreasing in height, but with an occasional high peak, such as Mt. San Valentín (12,720 feet), and glaciers growing ever larger and more numerous. San Valentín rises in the midst of an elevated ice field eighty miles long and thirty wide and sends down two great glacial streams, one to the south and the other into the San Rafael Lake, where the ice glides along the bottom until it breaks into fragments that drift away in the channel of Morelada. All these places can now be reached by railroad or steamer.

The long series of groups of islands beginning with Chiloé, about two-thirds of the way down the coast, is said to be nothing more than a partly submerged section of the Western Cordillera. Above the surface of the

water, for a distance of about eighty miles, they still have an average elevation of about 2,000 feet. Embraced in the Chonos Archipelago, between Chiloé and the Taytao Peninsular, are more than a thousand small islands, rocks and reefs, and then come the large islands of Wellington, Madre de Dios, Chatham, Hanover, Queen Adelaide, King William's Land, etc., each fringed by groups of little ones and all following the mainland in a graceful curve, and separated from it by the Messier, Sarmiento and Smyth Channels, which, together, extend for 360 miles, from the Penas Gulf to the Strait of Magellan. As the steamer glides through, at times so straight are they and such is the uniformity of the shore line on either side, one fancies one's self in a wide river in the interior of the continent; at others, when openings among the islands appear and the water stretches for miles towards the sea or far into the recesses of the Cordillera, it seems more like a great lake.

The fjord-like formations recall the more celebrated channel off the coast of Norway leading to the North Cape. Indeed, it is generally agreed by those who have seen both that there is little to choose between them, for, in both, the indentations and mountains of the coast and islands are similar in character; if there is less variety in the Chilean one, if the rain storms are more frequent, to compensate for it there is a much greater and more attractive wealth of vegetation. From the water's edge to a height of 1,400 or 1,500 feet, the slopes, and even the smaller islands, are covered with an unbroken mantle of beautiful, dense, green forest that presents an astonishing contrast, in this inhospitable region, to the bleak, grey rocks and bluish-tinted ice sheets above and the pure white snow caps on the summits beyond. In the country from Valdivia south to Smyth Channel, many of the trees, particularly in the ravines and sheltered places, are tall and shapely and their trunks and lower branches are incrustated with mosses and entwined with flowering creepers



Uspallata Pass over the mountains between Chile and Argentina



"Christ of the Andes"—Statue marking the boundary line between Chile and the Argentine Republic. This unique monument stands at an elevation of 14,450 feet above the sea



Trans-Andean Railroad



Wharf



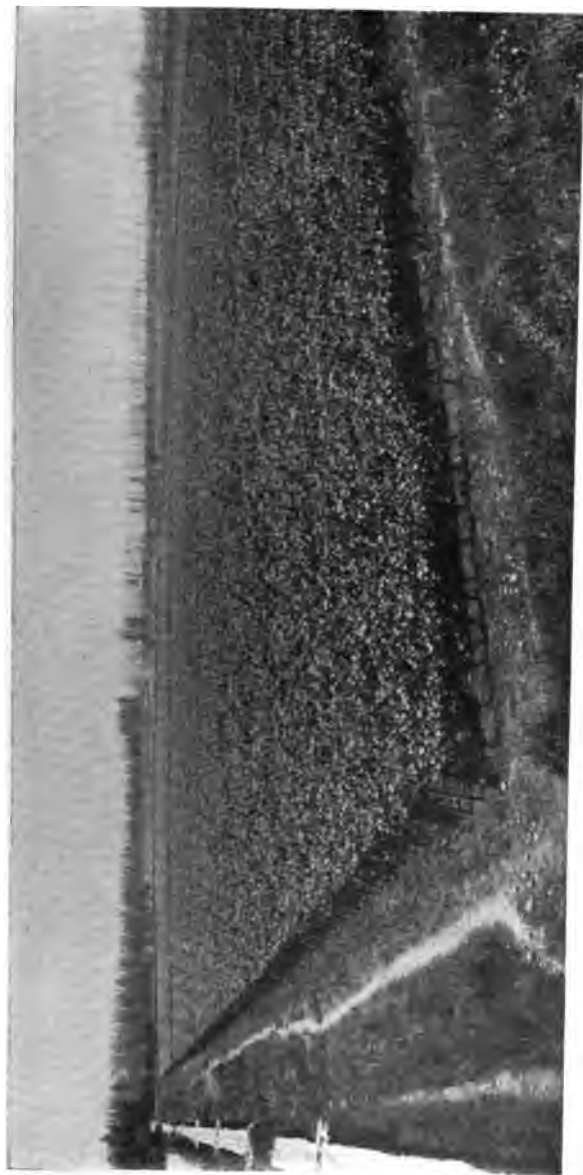
Private Residence
IN VALPARAISO, CHILE



Punta Arenas, the southernmost city on the globe, the coaling port for steamers passing through the Strait of Magellan, and the leading port in southern Chile for the export of fur, wool and minerals



Teaching a Chilean girl to dance La Cueca



A Chilean Vineyard



Nitrate Works at Iquique, Chile

and vines, many with a sort of mistletoe that has clusters of dark red blossoms; one of the creepers, called angel's hair, is delicate and filmy and hangs from the branches like threads of lace, and there is an undergrowth of ferns and shrubs and bamboo. These last often shoot up as far as the tops of the trees and seem to mat them together so that they form arbors over the pathways between. Farther south and in the region of the Strait, these woods lose something of their mysterious beauty; here they are composed principally of antarctic beech, gnarled and bent by the winds, and the thicket-like undergrowth is sombre and forbidding.

Emerging from the channel, for the first time the steamer encounters heavy rollers, that come pounding in through the broad gateway to the Pacific, not far to the west. Here, even in summer, it is seldom that there is neither storm nor fog, but, when it is clear enough, one can see the tempest-torn promontory of Cape Pillar, at the end of Desolation Island, the southwestern portal of the Strait. Eastward the conditions improve; the water grows smooth again and the clouds are usually lifted above the lower mountain tops; the scenery grows still more impressive than in the channel—only it is solemnly impressive now—at least, so it strikes most travellers. The Strait is much wider; the steamer is far enough away from the shore to enable one to see above the shoulders of the mountains to their summits, yet not so far that the distance renders them too indistinct; the water is steel grey, the bases and buttresses of the mountains take on a shade of purple, the summits seem whiter than ever, and over all, except during the comparatively rare intervals when the sun shines, are leaden clouds. In the center of the Strait, where the continent proper comes to a wedge-shaped point known as Cape Forward, and up the eastern arm, only a few miles away, lies Punta Arenas, the southernmost city in the world.

In the jumble of ranges forming the transmagellan continuation of the great Cordillera of the Andes, the most important is that named after the scientist Charles Darwin, who was the first to explore it, on the long western arm of the Island of Tierra del Fuego. The highest and most conspicuous happens to be the nearest to this remarkable port, and, as no better idea of the region in general could be conveyed, it seems to me, I quote from the story of a visit to Mt. Sarmiento, made by Sir Martin Conway the same summer he climbed Aconcagua, rather than attempt a description myself. He says:

"The sun was shining quite hotly and the ice was almost dazzlingly brilliant. After scrambling with difficulty on the glacier and wandering about the moraine area, we returned towards the shore, finding an exit through the forest at a much narrower place. The air was cool, the sun bright; there were little puffs of breeze; it was the very perfection of a day for active open-air life. Yet the clouds still hung stationary on the summit of Sarmiento. We lay awhile on the shore beside the rippling waters; then rowed away in hopes of seeing our mountain's misty veil lifted if only for a moment. The long, late midsummer sunset was at hand. A tender pink light, far fainter than the rich radiance of the Alpine glow, lay upon the surface of the glacier and empurpled its crevasses; it permeated the mist aloft. The cruel rocks, incrustated with ice, and the roof of the final precipice, with its steep ridges and icy *coulloirs*, were all that could be seen. The graceful, ice-rounded foundation rocks of this and all the other mountains around slope up to the cliff and jagged *arêtes* above and make each peak beautiful with contrasted forms, massive yet suave of outline beneath, splintered and aspiring above. In one direction we looked along the channel of our approach, in another, for twenty miles or so, along Cockburn Channel, with a fine range of snowy peaks beside it, prolonging Sarmiento's western range.

"The water was absolutely still; we floated with oars drawn in. Looking once more aloft, I found the mist grown thinner. The pink light crept higher and higher as the cloud dissolved. Suddenly—so suddenly that all who saw it cried out—far above this cloud, surprisingly, incredibly high, appeared a point of light like a glowing coal drawn from a furnace. The fiery glow crept down and down as though driving the mist away, till there stood before us, as it were, a mighty pillar of fire, with a wreath of mist around the base, and, down through all the wonderful pink wall and cataract of ice to the black forest and reflecting water. We had seen the final peak now—a tower of ice-crustled rock, utterly inaccessible from the western side. A little while later, the fair *coulloir* had faded away, mists had gathered and night was coming on apace. We rowed away for the steamer, but had not gone very far before a faint silver point appeared above the mist where the glowing tower had stood. The cloud curtain

rolled slowly down again and all the summit crest was revealed, cold and pure. Then the southwest ridge appeared, and finally the entire mountain, like a pale ghost, illuminated by some unearthly light. A moment later the clouds rolled together once more and solid night came on; we hastened to the steamer for warmth, food and sleep."

No conception of the Chilean country as a whole, however, can be formed unless it is understood that it is naturally divided into zones, as characteristically dissimilar as the various grand divisions of the United States. For instance, there is this Magellan and Fuegian region, where, to the east of the mountain ranges, the great Argentine *pampa* extends clear down through Tierra del Fuego, and where, the climate being too rigorous for agriculture, the principal industry, and the only important one, aside from a small amount of lumbering and gold mining, is the raising of herds of cattle and sheep. With the exception of the ranchers and the ten or twelve thousand people of Punta Arenas, which is the only port of call in these parts, and is, therefore, the distributing and shipping point for all the enormous expanse of country roundabout, including the southern section of Argentine Patagonia, the inhabitants are of the lower order of Indians and live in the forests, supporting themselves by hunting and fishing, just as they did before they ever saw or heard of a white man.

Then there is the island, lake and forest region between Smyth Channel, say, and Valdivia. In the southern part, the principal industries are lumber and fisheries, but in the north, especially in the Province of Chiloé (both the island and mainland) and Llanquihue, there are also wheat and barley fields, and the fruit, dairy and cattle-raising industries rank ahead of the timber and fishing, though in Chiloé this last is one of the most important. The inhabitants are mostly immigrants and Indians of a better and far more amenable class than the races farther south; and here, throughout nearly the whole of the country, in the uplands as well as near the coast, is the towering *alerce* (the Chilean pine), often 200 feet high, sometimes 250, with

a superb white trunk, varying from ten to fifteen feet in diameter, according to height, the rival of the California giant redwoods, and here the *diñgue*, that resembles the mighty German oak; and supplies wood for railroad cars, carriages, casks and ship-building, of wonderful toughness and durability. There are cypress, walnut, cedar, ash, beech and others excellent for general building and cabinet purposes, too, and other species of value for their barks.

Then, from Valdivia north through the Province of Coquimbo, comes the great central valley, which is excelled by few, if any, of the temperate agricultural regions of the world. It is here, of course, that the principal centers of population are located—Valparaíso, the most important seaport south of San Francisco, and Santiago, the capital, and the ports of Serena and Concepción. In this region all the cereals, fruits and vegetables are produced in abundance. There are immense vineyards and sugar-beet and tobacco plantations, stock and dairy farms, copper, silver and coal mines, and factories of almost every description; and north of Coquimbo are the desert provinces of Atacama, Antofagasta, Tarapacá and Tacna, where the rain so seldom falls that no useful vegetation can thrive except in a few places where irrigation is possible, yet which are the chief source of Chile's revenue and wealth. These constitute the fourth, or almost exclusively mineral zone, and, aside from their gold and silver and copper, contain the famous nitrate of soda beds, the only extensive deposit of the kind in the world, though here they are found thickly scattered over a strip 460 miles long, averaging about three miles in width. Every year more than 1,500,000 tons are exported to fertilize the fields and make the gunpowder of Europe and the United States, to say nothing of the iodine and other by-products extracted in the process of preparation.

Leaving La Paz and the bleak plateau, with its *llama* caravans and poncho-clad natives, and entering Chile by way of the railroad down the twelve thousand foot slope,

one comes to the end of the trip at this very port of Antofagasta, which lies basking in the tropical sun on a strip of coast at the foot of a relatively low tableland, 700 miles north of Valparaíso, in the heart of the rainless desert. It is a city, though, with a population of about 20,000, well laid out, with good broad streets and of very business-like appearance—a city that looks like one of our Western mining towns and impresses one at first glance with a more vigorous and ambitious civilization. There is a large *oficina*, as such plants are called, for the preparation of nitrate, steam tramcar lines, smelters for the treatment of copper and silver ores, long rows of barracks for the housing of the laborers, corrugated iron warehouses, crowds of ships in the offing taking on cargoes of nitrate and unloading supplies; yet there is a plaza and promenade and hotels, too, and most of the residences of the officers of the companies are decidedly attractive.

For this is still the gate of the highway to Bolivia through which most of her commodities come and her own products are sent out, and it is the distributing center for the province besides, where the land is so barren that the inhabitants are dependent on the outside world for almost everything. There was a time when even water had to be imported into the city itself—it used to be said that they drank champagne because water was too expensive—but not long ago a conduit was constructed and now it is piped from the mountains, 250 miles away; and they have brought soil from the south with which to make gardens to adorn their plaza and promenade and the grounds near the club where the Britishers have their tennis courts and inevitable five o'clock teas. It is said that of the \$127,000,000 invested in the hundred or more *oficinas* generally throughout the region, \$53,500,000 are English, \$52,500,000 Chilean and the rest German; so here, of course, as in the greater port of Iquique in Tarapacá, a large proportion of the people, other than the laboring class, is English, and certain it is that the blonde, clean-cut Anglo-Saxon is very much in evidence,

both in town and out among the plants lining the railroad.

As Antofagasta is not connected with Valparaiso by railroad, the only practicable way of getting there is by steamer. This is much to be regretted, because, although the accommodations are comfortable enough, the progress is slower and what is to be seen along the coast, even the view of the great cordilleras, is nowhere near as interesting and attractive as in the central valley. Except at widely separated intervals, where the hills part at the mouths of the few shallow rivers or about the bays, the shore all the way down is dominated by steep, rocky cliffs, so high as to conceal the country behind. The only signs of life are where little ports, usually mere clusters of tin-roofed huts, are huddled on the beach at the bases of the bluffs, sometimes with a railroad climbing up the cliffs and back into the mining country beyond. Occasionally there is a city, such as Serena; but, unless one has plenty of time to spare, these do not repay a stopover until the next boat.

Valparaiso is built at the foot of a mountain ridge, divided by deep ravines into nineteen separate *cerros*, or hills, that slope down to a wide bay, opening into the sea on the north. Encircling the beach is an embankment of masonry, called the Malecon, which considerably broadens the water front and serves as a protection—though there have been occasions when it has not proven an effective one—from the heavy seas driven in by the “northers” during the two stormy months of the winter. The principal streets run parallel with the embankment and increase in number in the section where the *cerros* recede, diminishing again where they extend almost to the water’s edge. In one section, way around near the end, there is scarcely room enough for the tracks of the railroad that connects the city with its beautiful, aristocratic suburb, Viña del Mar. Many have their homes on the terraced sides and tops of the *cerros*, which are connected one with another by handsome bridges and made accessible from the streets below by inclined railways and elevators, as in certain sections of Cincinnati, so

that, viewed from the entrance to the bay, the city has the appearance of a huge amphitheater.

In a sketch of Chile compiled by the International Bureau of American republics, dated June 1909, the population is given as 200,000, but, as Arthur Ruhl observes in his *The Other Americans*:

"As the principal port of the west coast, and, in a way, the 'downtown' for the capital and the rest of Chile, Valparaíso seems more important than its mere population would indicate, and, although the newspapers and street signs are in Spanish and Spanish is the language generally spoken, it has little of the look of the old Spanish-American town."

Here too a very large element of the population is foreign. The Germans have the largest colony and the Italians and French are said to come next in order. These are mostly retail merchants of the better class; but it is here also that the men live who design and control the vast nitrate and mining enterprises in the north and the capitalists who finance the big industrial projects and railway development, the exporters and importers, bankers, brokers and insurance men, and among these the ten or twelve thousand English in the city predominate. English is spoken by the better educated class of Chileans as well as Spanish and French. The French, of course, have a monopoly of the retail trade having to do with fashionable apparel and luxuries, for Paris has always been the Mecca of the smart set here and in Santiago just as it has in Rio de Janeiro and Buenos Aires.

The buildings are modern—many of them new, since the city had to be largely rebuilt after the great earthquake in 1906, which was relatively as disastrous here as the one in San Francisco of the same year was to our principal Pacific port. The main business street, the Calle Victoria, which parallels the Malecon almost the entire length, presents an array of government buildings, banks, hotels, theaters, cafés, retail shops and office buildings larger and more substantial and elaborate than can be seen almost anywhere in cities of that size. The shops, which are of good size, leave nothing to be desired in the way of assort-

ment and quality of their stocks. There are trolley cars and arc lights in the streets, libraries, beautiful parks and plazas where they have public band concerts in the evenings, attractive residence districts, and near by, at Viña del Mar, there are sea bathing, tennis, racing, football, golf, country clubs, and a first class hotel for those who are not so fortunate as to have their own houses there. Only about sixty miles away (though it is more than twice as far by the railroad, which has to make a detour to get through the coast range) is the capital, Santiago, the real metropolis of the country.

Says Marie Robinson Wright (in her *Republic of Chile*):

"Santiago, the Andean city of the snow white crown, is unique in the charm of her unconventional beauty and the rugged splendor of her surroundings. Like a queen in the giant castle that nature has given her, with walls of the imperishable granites of the Cordilleras and towers reaching to the skies, she seems created for the homage of those whose gaze upon her. Her face is toward the sunset, as if in expectation of the high destiny that awaits this land of promise in the golden west of South America; and, from the snowy peaks behind her, marked clear against the blue sky, to the farthest limit westward, bordered by the boundless Pacific, there is no alien territory to limit the prospect of her fair domain. Her jewels, rare and resplendent, are the rich emerald of the Andean valleys, the matchless sapphire of Andean skies, the pure diamonds of Andean streams. Her royal robes are woven of the marvellous purple and gold of Andean sunsets, unrivalled in brilliancy, and imparting to her gracious beauty the glow of infinite loveliness, as they envelop her utterly, catching even the snowy peaks of her sovereign diadem in their magic folds."

Nor is this in the least overdrawn. No city could be more delightfully situated. It lies in the great central valley, on a plateau 1,740 feet above the level of the sea, forty miles long and about twenty wide, where the climate is as perfect as that in the Pyrenees, and is almost completely enclosed by a magnificent border of mountains. Luzerne and other show places in Switzerland are mere miniatures compared with it. The level portion of the ground is highly cultivated with all sorts of fruits and crops that grow in the temperate zone and is divided into large *haciendas* or plantations, nearly all with fine cattle and horse-breeding

farms attached and princely mansions, as of feudal lords, and there are splendid avenues of giant eucalyptus along the roads and separating the fields. In the heart of the city itself is a hill called El Cerro de Santa Lucia that rises to a height of 300 feet and is half as big around as Central Park in New York, a spot which such a connoisseur as William E. Curtis declares (in his *Between the Andes and the Ocean*) he has "long held to be the prettiest place in the world." The summit is reached by a number of winding driveways and walks, lined with trees, flowering shrubs and overhanging vines and flanked by battlemented walls and towers, picturesque beyond description; there are terraces ornamented with flower beds and fountains, and grottos, balconies and rustic seats; all along at intervals, are kiosks for music and refreshments; half way up is a theater where light opera and vaudeville performances are given both afternoons and evenings; a little farther on is a restaurant that is a favorite resort for breakfasting and dining out, and, best of all, from the summit there is a glorious view of the whole country around.

Across the city from Santa Lucia to the Central Railway depot, an avenue called the Alameda de las Delicias extends for a distance of three miles. It is 350 feet wide and all down the center is a beautiful park containing statues and monuments to Chile's heroes—it is her hall of fame, not shut in by four walls, but placed in the midst of this most frequented of her promenades, among the trees and flowers and fountains and lakes, where, as Marie Robinson Wright says, "the stories told in marble and bronze may inspire the multitude to patriotism and courage;" and, facing the driveways along the sides are many of the handsomest of the residences. The old center of the city is marked by the famous Plaza de Armas, with a marble monument representing South America receiving her baptism of fire in the war of independence. On one side are the Cathedral and Bishop's Palace, on another the splendid Municipal and Intendencia Buildings and Government Telegraph

Office, on the other, two long series of shops under fine arcades that extend the whole length of the sidewalks from corner to corner. It is around this plaza that society takes its customary stroll in the evenings and the dusky-eyed, black-haired *señoritas*, according to the Latin custom, flirt as much as they dare with the young exquisites who frankly and boldly admire with glances more eloquent the words. Opposite the Plaza O'Higgins, a few blocks away, is the Congressional Palace, which occupies the whole square and is one of the largest and handsomest buildings in South America. In architectural design it looks somewhat like the Senate and House wings of our Capitol at Washington, only of course it is much larger than either; and in the same district is the Casa de Moneda (the Mint), in which the President and Cabinet have their offices, a massive structure as big as our Washington Treasury.

In general style Santiago is not as modern as Valparaíso, though it is far more interesting and attractive and is not behind in public improvements and utilities or energy. The larger residences are characteristically Spanish, and, therefore charming to a stranger from the north. They are of the type described in the article on Uruguay—built around a central court or patio, as it is called, filled with flower beds and palms and graceful shrubs; very often there is a fountain and some statuary, and through the gateways delicious glimpses may be caught in passing; the windows opening on the streets are usually heavily barred; the walls are frescoed and tinted and ornamented with columns and wreaths and vases of stucco. Some few of these residences are constructed of massive stone and resemble the mansions on the principal streets of any of our northern cities. Like all the large South American towns, it has museums, libraries and a magnificent theater. In short, though differing from our capitals in many respects, this greatest city in Chile is obviously a metropolis and offers opportunities for sightseeing and amusements of every description that few cities in the world can surpass.

For comprehensive information in regard to travel routes, steamer and railroad service, hotels, money, gratuities, climate, clothing, customs and port regulations, the reader is referred to the following sources:

"*Practical Guide to Latin America. Preparation, Cost, Routes, Sight-Seeing*," by Albert Hale. Boston, Small, Maynard & Co., 1909.

The travellers' notes in "*The South Americans*," by the same author.

"*Travel Conditions in South America*," by Professor William R. Shepherd, published at pages 1004-1038 of the Pan American Bulletin for May, 1908.

The reader's inquiries will also be cheerfully answered by the Pan American Union, Washington, D. C.

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The South American Republics (the Story of the Nations), by Thomas C. Dawson. \$3.00 net. Aconcagua and Tierra del Fuego, by Sir Martin Conway. The Great States of South America, by Charles W. Domville-Fife. Chile of To-day (its Commerce and Resources), by Adolfo Ortúzar, Consul General of Chile in U. S., New York, 1907. \$5.00 net. Chile—A General Sketch, compiled by International Bureau of Geography and Travel, vol. I, Central and South America, by A. H. Keane. History of Chile, by A. U. Hancock. \$2.50. Chile, by C. E. Scott Elliot. Between the Andes and the Ocean, W. E. Curtis. \$2.50 net; postage 18 cents. The Other Americans, by Arthur Ruhl. \$2.00 protected net. The Republic of Chile, by Marie Robinson Wright. \$10.00 net.

PRONOUNCING VOCABULARY

Words whose pronunciation is easy or can be found easily or which have been given in previous issues of the Reading Journey are not listed below.

Alameda de las
Delicias
alerce
Ancasquichua
arete
Atacama
Casa de Moneda

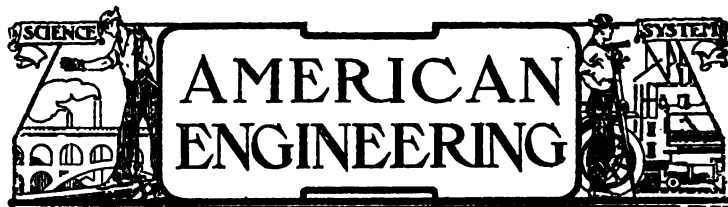
Chiloe
Chonos
Copaibo
Copaiba
Coquimbo
Cuevas
hacienda
Horcones
Iquima
Iquique
Las Demas
lingue
llama
Llanquihue
Los Patos
Lucia
Livililla

Ah-lah-may'-dah day
lahs Day-lee'-see-ahs
ah-lay'-say
Ah-hahs-kee-loo'-chah
ah-ray'-tay
Ah-tah-kah'-mah
Kah'-sah day Moh-nay'-
dah
Chee-loh-ay'
Choh'-nohs
Koh-pah'-ee-boh
Koh-pah'-oo-ay
Koh-keen'-boh
Koo-ay'-vahs
ah-see-ayn'-dah
Ohr-koh'-nays
Ee-kee'-mah
Ee-kee'-kay
Lahs Day-mahs'
Ieen'-gay
yah'-mah
Yahn-kee'-oo-ay
Lohs pah'-tohs
Loo-see-ah
Yoo-lah-ee-ah'-koh

Madre de Dios
Malecon
Maquignas
Messier
Morelada
Nueva Estremadura
oficina
Penas
poncho
Puerto de Come
Caballo

Pular
Rosales
Serena
Socompa
Tacna
Tarapaca
Taytao
Torono
Tronador
Tupungato
Vina del Mar

Mah'-dray day Dee-ehs'
Mah-lay-kohn'
Mah-keen-yas'
Mes'-see-ay
Moh-ray-lah'-dah
Mah-kee-nahs'
may-doo'-rah
oh-fee-see'-nah
Pay'-nahs
pohn'-choh
Pohr-tay-zoo-ay'-loh
day Koh'-may Kah-
bah'-yoh
Pooh-lahs'
Roh-zah'-lays
Say-ray'-nah
Soh-kohm'-pah
Tahk'-nah
Tah-rah-pah-kah'
Tah-ee-tah'-oh
Toh-roh'-nee
Troh-nah-dohr'
Too-poon-gah'-toh
Veen'-yah day! Mahr



VII. Sanitary Engineering*

Carl S. Dow

J OHN Quincy Adams was asked one day, during his declining years, regarding his health. "John Quincy Adams, sir," was the reply, "is well. The house that he lives in is growing old and worn, but John Quincy Adams, sir, is well."

How much money and care we devote to our houses of wood and brick, but how little thought and exercise we give the complex bodies we live in! This was the case a few years ago, but, happily, public health is now receiving the attention it deserves. Dr. John Robertson, of the University of Birmingham, England, said that one of the most remarkable achievements of the nineteenth century was the advance in the health of the people. He went on to say that the death rate of Birmingham in 1851 was 26 per thousand; in 1910 it was only $12\frac{1}{2}$ per thousand. This means that had the former death rate continued there would have been 12,000 more deaths in 1910 than actually occurred.

The individual's health, in so far as it bears no direct relation to the health of others, is his own affair. The promotion of public health, the improvement of health in towns and cities is the business of the Sanitary Engineer.

*Previous instalments of this series are "Engineers and Engineering" in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for September, 1911; "The Steam Engine," October; "Heating Houses and Public Buildings," November; "Mechanical Refrigeration," December; "Compressed Air," January, 1912; "The Gasoline Engine," February.

Good health demands a certain amount of exercise; it also requires sunlight. These things are looked after by the individual to a great extent, except perhaps when factory conditions forbid. Good health also demands wholesome food, fresh air, and an abundance of pure water. These factors are not so much the affair of the individual as of the engineer, for the Civil Engineer assists in providing cheap, wholesome food by interesting himself in the improvement of transportation facilities, the Hydraulic Engineer builds waterworks and systems of distribution, and the Sanitary Engineer concerns himself with the ventilation of factories, mills, and schools, and still further works to maintain the purity of air by building sewer systems for the removal of town sewage, factory wastes, and whatever is detrimental to public health.

Sanitary Engineering has been defined as that branch of engineering which has for its object the improvement of the health of towns and cities, by bringing to them those things which promote health, and carrying from them those things which are injurious to it.

A majority of the many interests of the Sanitary Engineer may be placed under the three heads:—Ventilation, Water Supply, and Sewage Disposal.

VENTILATION

No family ever thinks of eating from dirty dishes; but filling the lungs with dirty air is not uncommon. Some prefer to breathe dead air or "second-hand" air rather than be chilly even for a few minutes. Many people seem perfectly willing to attend a poorly-ventilated theater and breathe the air already used by two thousand people. But the Sanitary Engineer and the Physician are fast eliminating such conditions by first finding out what are the real causes of discomfort when many people work together indoors, and then so conditioning the air that it meets the requirements of the workers.

A few years ago the scientists decided that air containing a moderate amount of carbon dioxide (carbonic acid gas) was unfit for breathing. It was all very simple—supplying enough fresh air to dilute the bad air and so keep the percentage of carbon dioxide down to a predetermined figure meant good ventilation. But a room filled with those persons typifying the “great unwashed,” who never know a dentist’s care and bathe as seldom as circumstances allow certainly impart to the room an odor vastly more offensive than would the same number of people who are habitually clean—yet the carbon dioxide percentage would be practically the same in both cases.

Later it was thought that one of the chief causes of discomfort and sickness, resulting from the breathing of air in a closed room, was poisons in exhaled breath. But experiments proved that so long as air contained oxygen, human beings were comfortable and healthy even if compelled to breathe for many hours air containing carbon dioxide far in excess of what had hitherto been declared the safe limit.

The Smithsonian Institute in Washington carefully analyzed exhaled breath. The most strict chemical analysis failed to show the existence of any poisonous matter.

Drowsiness, headache, minor illnesses ~~are not caused by carbon dioxide; disease is not spread by breath exhaled from the lungs.~~ What then is the trouble, for air in a room occupied by many people is unquestionably injurious if no fresh air, or but little fresh air is admitted. Most of the trouble is caused by the gaseous products of the decomposition of perspiration on the body. The rest of the trouble results from abnormal temperature and humidity, and foul odor from decayed teeth and disordered stomachs.

The human body gives off a large amount of perspiration containing much organic matter, which, in decomposing, causes the vile odor so often encountered in rooms and public conveyances where there are many people who allow perspiration to remain too long on the surfaces of their

bodies. Of course the body gives off heat also, and moisture enters the air both from the exhaled breath and by the evaporation of perspiration. The air in the room is not only bad, but as soon as it becomes saturated with vapor, the evaporation of perspiration is checked, resulting in the uncomfortable feeling experienced on a warm, muggy August day.

Now the evaporation of perspiration from the body cools it by taking away heat as explained in Physics or learned in studying Mechanical Refrigeration. We are comfortable in winter because little heat is carried away in this manner. In summer the evaporation is what enables us to endure the hot weather—but just as soon as the evaporation is checked we become uncomfortable—"heated" we call it.

The old carbon dioxide standard of efficiency of ventilation has been given up. What then is the standard? There is none; no single standard can be formulated from present medical, bacteriological, or engineering information. There cannot well be a single standard, for ventilation need not be as efficient for an isolated building occupied by clean, healthy individuals, especially if plenty of sunshine enters. On the other hand, an abundant supply of fresh air is necessary in hospitals where the general health is low; in basements, or in places where hygiene and cleanliness are neglected.

As one physician puts it, "the theoretical standard of ventilation should be such that no inhabitant will be harmed immediately or ultimately by the air of the place ventilated. In order that this may be brought about, it is necessary that every factor be standardized."

In short, adequate ventilation is the correction of all undesirable atmospheric conditions, such as too high or too low temperature or humidity, contamination from offensive odors, or injurious gases from the body, or from damp cellars or leaky gas jets.

The practical side of ventilation is shown by the numerous instances of financial saving resulting from the removal of foul air from work rooms, the better air reducing absences of workers and causing greater efficiency. Individual health and happiness also follow proper air conditioning.

An investigation into the conditions in the operating room of the New England Telegraph and Telephone Company at Cambridge, Massachusetts, showed that 4.9 per cent of the girl operators were absent during the winter months of 1906 and 4.5 per cent in 1907. The installation of a simple ventilating system, costing only \$75, reduced the absences to 1.9 per cent. There were no other changes in condition.

In a straw-hat factory in Baltimore, there was no ventilating apparatus. The first two winters the absences were 27½ per cent. After putting in the ventilating system, the percentage dropped to seven.

No article on this subject would even approach completeness without mentioning the now classic case of the United States Pension Bureau. For several successive years the average number of days of absence due to sickness was 18,736. Removing the offices from scattered, poorly-ventilated buildings to new and well-ventilated quarters reduced the absences to 10,114.

Of the methods employed for ventilation, the stationary ventilator is the most simple. It is a device for letting foul or over-heated air escape simply because it is warmer in the building than outside, the heated air rising as in a chimney. Such ventilators merely provide a way for foul air to escape, the fresh air entering the building through every crack or crevice, some of it from desirable sources and some from places which may be far from healthy.

With the power-driven fan, the foul air is withdrawn whether cold or hot, and the amount handled is varied by altering the speed of the fan. Or, the fan may draw the



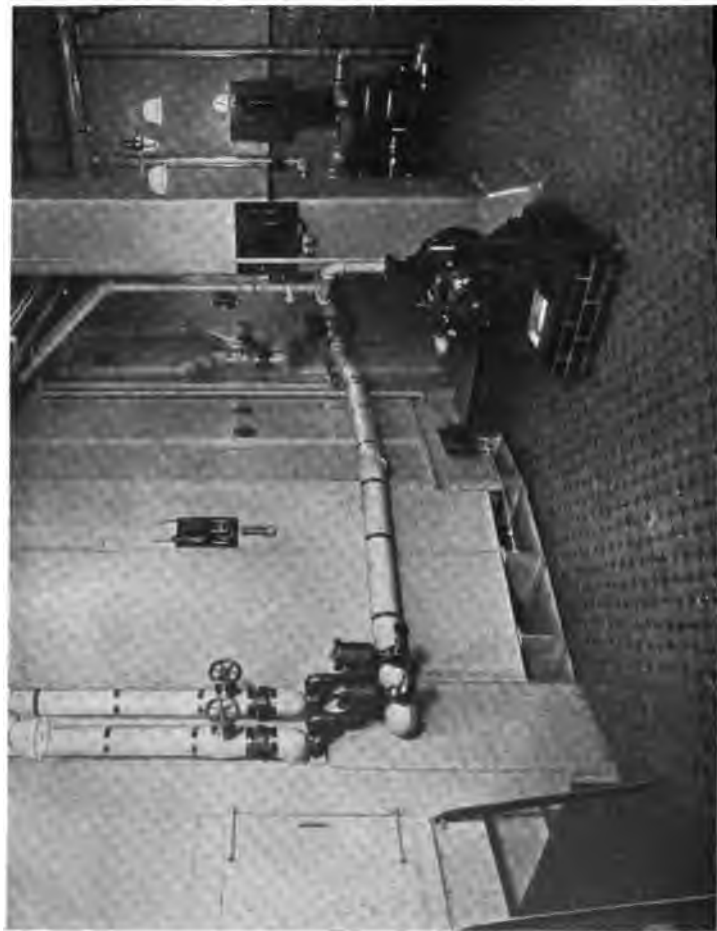
Concrete Dam across the Little Androscoggin River at Auburn, Maine. Built in the winter of 1907-1908 by the Aberthaw Construction Company



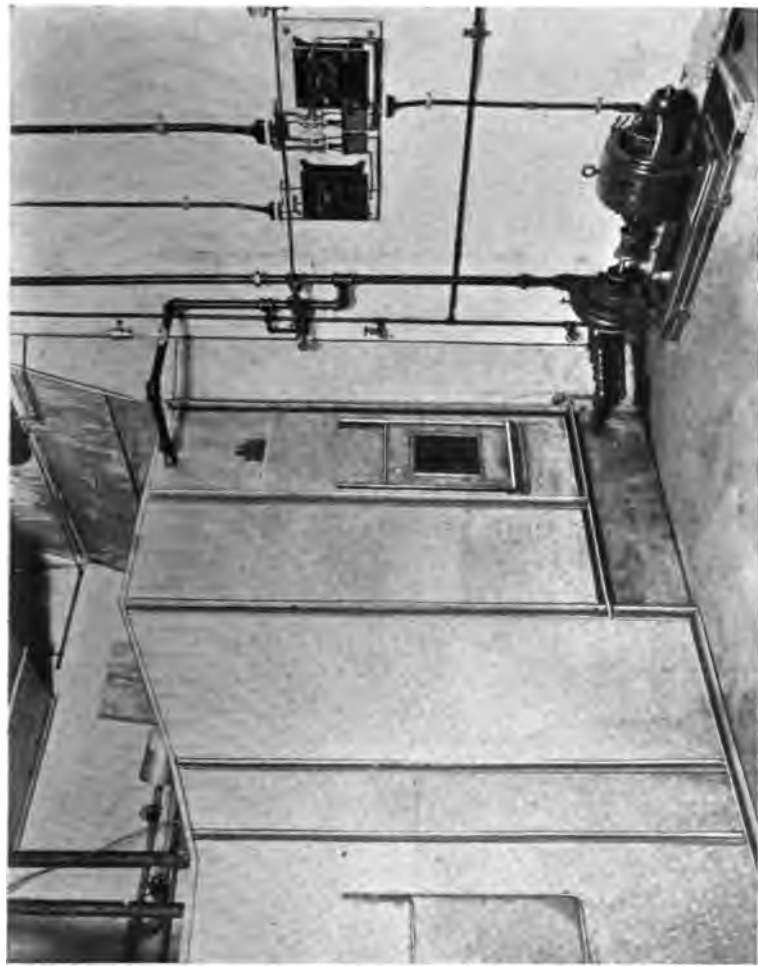
Old Roman Sewer. In active operation for twenty-six centuries. The most famous sewer ever built—the Clonca Maxima



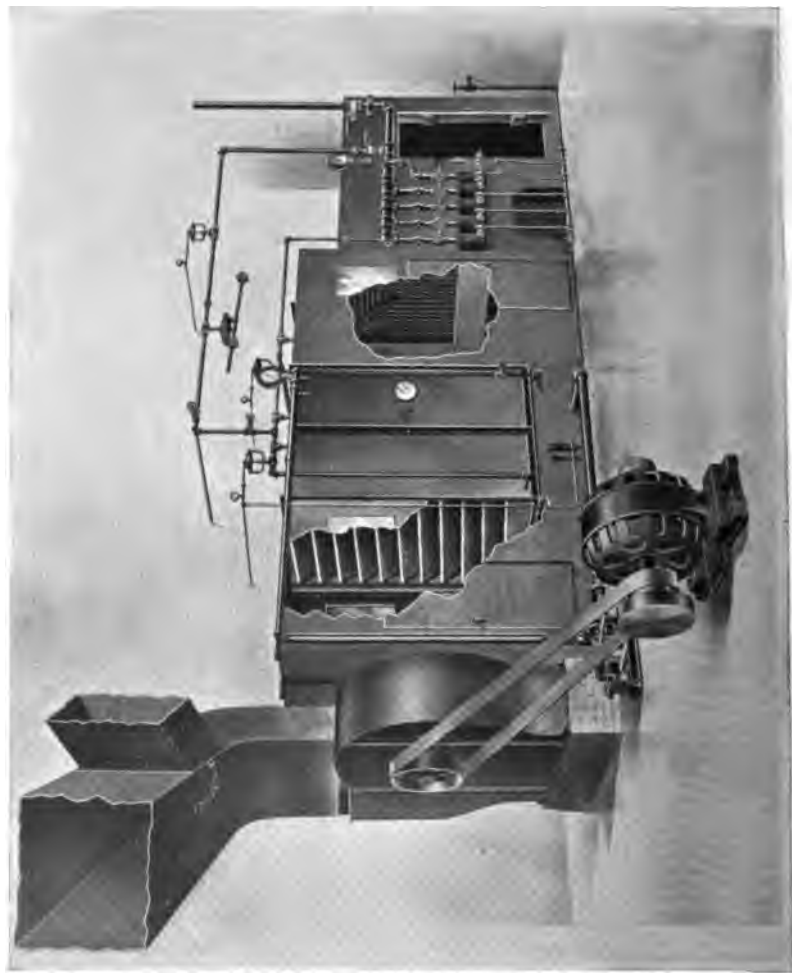
Building a sewer in Louisville, Kentucky. Three lines of salt-glazed sewer pipe imbedded in concrete



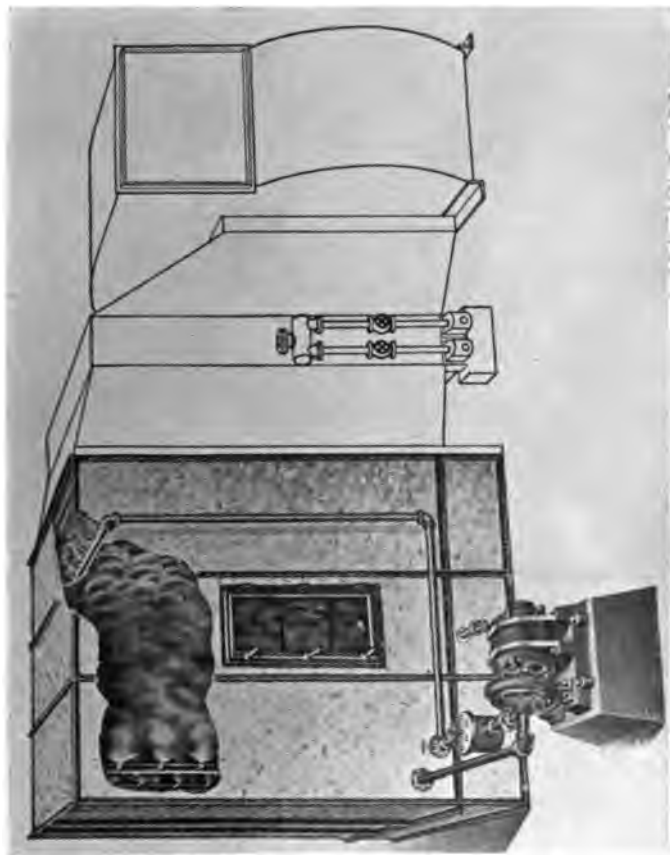
**Webster Air Washer Installation with Humidity Control in Baltimore Safe Deposit
and Trust Company**



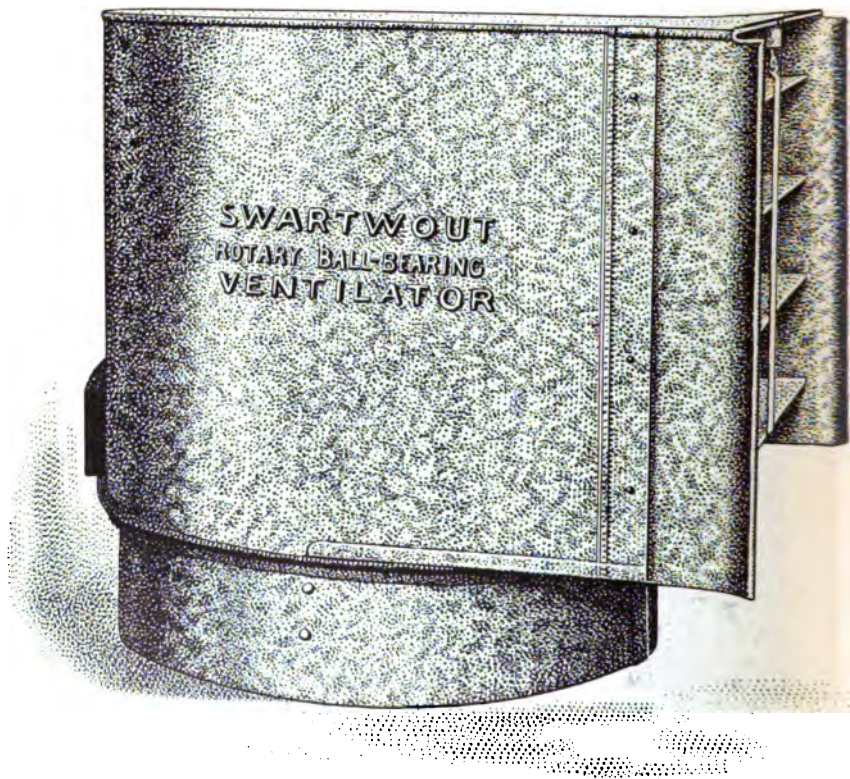
Air Washer in Wells-Fargo Building, San Francisco. Installation by Warren Webster and Company



Complete Webster Air Conditioning Apparatus—Heaters, Sprays, Eliminators, Fan, and Automatic Control



Carrier Air Washer and Humidifier Showing Sprays in Operation



Ventilator for Industrial and Public Buildings. Swings on Ball Bearings to utilize the action of the wind in removing foul and overheated air

air from some source known to be free from contamination and force it into the building, the foul or over-heated air leaking out or passing out through the ventilating flues provided.

The most complete conditioning of air includes a treatment which gives it the proper temperature and humidity, and washes out the dirt. "Laundered air" is not uncommon now-a-days. Many banks, some business houses, theaters, schools, and hospitals are provided with air-washers, and most textile mills depend upon air of properly controlled humidity for best and most economical production.

Air is conditioned by properly moistening it to give it the correct humidity, cleaning it from dirt, odor, gases, and disease germs, and giving it the temperature it should have when it enters the rooms. Of the many methods of conditioning air, probably the most satisfactory results are obtained by the use of water sprays.

The air entering the spray chamber comes in contact with finely divided particles of water or atomized spray. The spray seizes upon the dust particles, causing them to drop to the bottom of the chamber called the settling tank. The sprays are supplied with hot water for winter months so that the air is not only washed and moistened but is warmed also. In summer, cool water is used, the air becoming quite cool because of the evaporation of some of the spray water.

At the end of the spray chamber, is the eliminator, which consists of a series of plates arranged "zig-zag." The saturated air strikes these eliminator plates, the first few of which are flooded with water to catch any solid matter which was not precipitated by the sprays. In passing by the edge of the remaining eliminator plates, the excess moisture is removed or eliminated so that not a bit of free moisture remains in the air. The cleansed moistened air is then drawn into the fan which forces it through the steam heater into the ducts and passages which form the distributing system.

The cooling of the air is one of the great advantages of such a method of air conditioning. Of course air may be cooled by passing it over pipes circulating cold brine, but the cooling is expensive and but partial because the difference in temperature is not great. With the spray system, the summer air is reduced about ten degrees; in fact a system of this kind in one of the largest hotels in New York cooled the entering air thirteen degrees below the outside air which was 84 degrees. The spray water is used over and over again. A somewhat lower temperature might have been obtained with a constant supply of fresh cooler water.

WATER SUPPLY

With a lake full of water at its doors, Chicago uses 188,315,000 gallons of water every twenty-four hours. Chicago uses this amount and it wastes more than it uses. For every inhabitant, the pumps handle 202 gallons per day—a considerable increase from 138 gallons in 1890. But statistics gathered by engineers show that water is not only used liberally but its use is steadily increasing in almost every city.

A very large water consumption generally means either a needless waste by defective plumbing, or extensive manufacturing. In Chicago it is estimated that 20 per cent is wasted by poor plumbing and 30 per cent is lost by underground leakage. There is no good excuse for such enormous wastes. Perhaps the low rate charged (seven cents per 1,000 gallons) is partly responsible for the carelessness, but it does not excuse leakage from water mains. Recently, measures were taken to remedy the defects in plumbing and piping with the result that with the work far from complete, the saving has been 4,000,000 gallons per day.

Statistics are usually dry and uninteresting, but some of the tables computed by municipal engineers give information regarding water used, population, size of families, etc., which is of absorbing interest to those studying muni-

cipal affairs or Sanitary Engineering. San José, California, a relatively new town inhabited by Americans, uses 194 gallons of water per capita per day, while Baton Rouge, an old town in Louisiana peopled by French, gets along with but nineteen gallons. New York and Boston, two cities having water from considerable distance, used, in 1890, seventy-nine and eighty gallons respectively.

SEWAGE

When Hercules was given the task of cleaning the Augean stables, one of his twelve labors, he turned a stream of water through them. His famous exploit was a piece of good engineering because he not only planned to bring to the stables the one great agent which would do the work, but also provided for its outflow. Engineers today follow his lead by supplementing the public water supply by a public sewage system, for the large volume of water coming to a city must be gotten rid of after performing its task of cleansing the homes.

It is evident that the object of a sewer system is to carry the sewage from a city to some point where it may be discharged into a river, lake, or ocean, where by mingling with a large quantity of water and exposed to air it will be purified.

In planning such a system, the water supply data are all important. Where no other data are available, the amount of sewage to be disposed of is taken as the amount of water supplied. Some towns have no records which give accurately the amount of fresh water pumped into it; in such cases, the engineers must look to statistics of other towns of about the same size and character. That size alone does not give figures reliable enough for comparisons is shown by the fact that Patterson, New Jersey, uses 128 gallons per capita, while Fall River with about the same number of inhabitants has a daily consumption of but 29 gallons per capita. Buffalo, a relatively large manufacturing city uses 186 gallons per capita, but Cambridge, Massachu-

setts, largely residential and much smaller, uses but 64.

It has been estimated from averages that towns of less than 25,000 inhabitants require about sixty gallons per capita per day and large cities need eighty to one hundred gallons. These figures are fairly reliable for sewer design in case the actual water rate is not known. But in American cities the population may grow very rapidly in a decade, so that it is not at all uncommon for the engineer to put in sewer pipe large enough to carry twice as much sewage as the water supply would furnish.

The sewer is often the means of carrying off the storm water, and when so used must be far larger than if made to handle sewage only. The engineer must then look to weather reports to find the maximum rainfall in an hour during the last ten years. It is obvious that the total rainfall for a year is of no consequence—the sewer must be large enough to care for a sudden downpour. One inch of rain per hour is about the maximum. What part of the rainfall reaches the sewer? In country towns relatively little, for the ground takes it up. In cities the roofs and pavements shed it and most storm water reaches the sewer.

Another factor which the Sanitary Engineer must take into serious account is the character of the surface of the town. The hills and low places often influence the size of the sewer pipes, for with a good pitch or inclination, the pipes may be smaller than for level stretches, but if the pitch is obtained by very deep excavation the smaller and cheaper pipe may really cost more when laid.

These are a few of the features considered in designing the sewer system; thorough investigation, good judgment, mathematics, and reliable tables of water consumption and pipe sizes are others.

The work of the Sanitary Engineer is comparatively easy when a city sewer can be made to empty into the ocean, as in the case of seaport towns. It is far more difficult in cities on the shores of large lakes, for the lake

also supplies the drinking water. Chicago's problem is well known. When the city became large and it was no longer feasible to take water from one part of the lake and empty the sewage into another part, the problem became difficult, but was solved by digging the drainage canal, a very important engineering project. Probably the largest problem of this nature concerns the large cities on the Great Lakes.

The difficulty or the expense of disposing of sewage by emptying it into a water course or ocean has led to all kinds of sewage purification schemes. The manner in which Baltimore is to treat and dispose of its sewage will serve as a good example of how it can be done without polluting streams.,

Sewage from the city of Baltimore, coming from 160 miles of mains and laterals, goes to the disposal plant five and a half miles away where it first passes very slowly through settling tanks. The solid and heavier substance, called sludge, settles, and remains at the bottom of these tanks. The solid portion is drawn into digesting tanks where it remains until reduced to an innocuous condition. After drying out on sand beds, it is used for filling in low ground.

The water or liquid sewage is purified without chemicals. It is sprayed over filter beds of broken stone which have a depth of eight and one-half feet. The sewage deposits on the stones a gelatinous film in which the bacteria grow, and the water passing successively over this film is purified. The comparatively pure water then passes slowly through settling basins and on to the power house. At this point a fall of eighteen feet is utilized for operating the water wheels which drive the electric generators for furnishing electric light. Leaving the power house, the water is discharged into a nearby river.

This disposal plant is constructed on the "unit" system, that is, it is made up of several complete units which are

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practically independent of one another. With this scheme, additions can be made at any time to care for extensions of the sewer system. The system for Baltimore is so planned that with additions it will dispose of the sewage when the population reaches 1,000,000.

Doubtless the method of disposing of the sewage in the future will be along these lines, for some system must be used to prevent sending polluted water into our lakes and streams. Factories and mills in order to co-operate with cities and towns for sanitary betterment will have to purify the water they pollute.

SEARCH AND REVIEW QUESTIONS ON THE REQUIRED READING
WILL BE FOUND IN THE ROUND TABLE SECTION AT THE BACK OF THE
MAGAZINE.

(End of C. L. S. C. Required Reading, Pages 28-98).

Recent Phases of Journalism

Frank Chapin Bray

MODERN journalism is so unabashed and unconfined, that any attempt to define latest phases may be quite behind the times by the time it reaches the eye of the reader on this printed page. Indeed American journalism seems to make its own definitions as it goes along, with little reverence for journalistic traditions and with something like contempt for the term journalism itself. Newspaper men—publishers, editors, department editors, special writers or plain reporters—magazine writers, staff photographers, advertising men, etc., do not have the habit nowadays of calling themselves or each other journalists, although they are makers of journalism as we have it today. On the other hand the technical distinctions still raised among the craft between the legitimate function, field, and form of the magazine, the weekly, and the daily newspaper make less and less impression on the reading public. To the reader journalism is the newspapers, plus all kinds of peri-

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odicals. Unprecedented in quantity; in quality so often apparently all out of proportion to the price; complex as the interests of the modern era it exploits; trusted, feared, and mistrusted as a money-making publicity business, it baffles classification and analysis.

Perhaps the most notable latter-day development has been a species of so-called national journalism embodied in the popular priced magazine of large circulation. Mr. S. S. McClure is properly credited with pioneering in this field, and the vogue of the magazine of exposure has had not a little to do with the conception that publicity is first aid to injured democracy. Not that books had not dealt voluminously with social, political and industrial ills, but they were higher priced and reached a comparatively limited number of readers. Not that newspapers had failed to unearth national, state and local evils, but that necessarily catering daily to populations within circumscribed geographical limits, a provincial perspective on local problems was more or less inevitable.

Magazine journalism not only tackled Standard Oil, Wall Street, the Senate, the trusts and the tariff, but it professed to be able to show cities to themselves as others saw them from the national point of view—San Francisco's graft, Cleveland's traction struggle, Chicago's canned beef reputation, St. Louis with her boodlers, Pittsburg's industrial pit, Philadelphia's political soddenness, New York's insurance scandals, and the like. The articles were signed by the writers so that people distinguished them from mere employes of an impersonal publication business; their truth-telling purpose and independence of local entanglements was widely assumed. How far the sensitizing of conscience regarding big and little business, good and bad politics, is attributable to magazine journalism could not easily be calculated; a change of attitude has been and is discernible in the daily and weekly press as well.

Meantime it has been interesting to observe coincident

discussion of the decadence of the magazine. Editorials have directed attention to the few survivors of the type that devoted themselves to literature and art, whose chief contributions in due time went into the more permanent form of books. It has also been pointed out that magazines have not been altogether free from the big business sins they criticize: subsidies, gentlemen's agreements, over-capitalization, stock jobbing and other bits of high finance. The public may recognize some value in the check kept on each other in this respect by the magazine and the newspaper business. Incidentally it may be stated that by formal resolution the leading newspaper association of the United States has put itself on record against giving such wholesale free space as formerly to quotations from the magazines, thus recognizing them as competitors for that revenue from advertising which is life or death to the great majority of modern publications.

To say that development of advertising is the chief end of much of the latest journalism is no exaggeration. The admixture claims to be that larger journalism which is fittest to survive. It was Carolyn Wells, I think, who hit off the popular magazine as "a small body of literature entirely surrounded by advertisements." A "magazine" supplement is freely supplied to various Sunday newspapers in exchange for a distribution to you, dear reader, that shall make good the circulation guaranteed to advertisers by the lithographic company which publishes the magazine. President Angell in his "Reminiscences" recalls with special delight his editorship of the *Providence Journal* in Civil War days, when it sold at six cents a copy; you spend a penny for the marvellous metropolitan morning paper which brings the latest news from the ends of the earth to your breakfast tables and it is calculated that revenue from advertising will pay the rest of the cost and a publisher's profit besides. There are excellent eight page dailies published in smaller cities at the subscription price of \$1.50

or less per year. A 32-page Brooklyn weekly, four editions for different sections, specializing on local news and local advertising, is delivered free to some 80,000 residents on the strength of its advertising value. Do the phenomenal trade journals, which now constitute an extraordinarily interesting section of specialized journalism render greater service to the trade constituency in the advertising or the text pages? Have you noticed the misalliance with doubtful medicinal advertising in some religious journals? Be it added, however, that enterprising publications, though competitors for advertising, have not merely campaigned against quack and fraudulent advertisers but have refused to accept advertisements for which they are unwilling to accept reasonable responsibility. The spread of such advertising ethics to the press in general would strengthen confidence in journalism at large.

Again, news and advertising overlap; the line between them is indistinct. How much of an aviation contest financed by a newspaper is news and how much is advertising? A rival newspaper may answer by reporting the contest without naming its competitor. Or, consider the mammoth present-day automobile business. You get columns and pages of reading matter about motor cars and motoring accompanied by pages and columns of display advertisements of automobiles. It is furthermore the goal of the advertising specialist to make advertisements that shall have the appeal of news. If perchance he succeeds in getting by both publisher and editor with advertising in the guise of news, he is envied by other publicity experts. Indeed, there is reason to suspect that the ad. journalist has had an influence on the style of many publications in respect to catch head lines, black-faced letter emphasis, and other typographical devices to attract attention. That the make-up and page form of publications is so generally determined by advertising considerations is almost too obvious to mention. It should be said, however, that there

Public of Chicago, the *Mirror* of St. Louis, or the *Argonaut* of San Francisco, is an interesting study, while the propagandist weekly like Mr. Bryan's *Commoner* and *La Follette's Weekly* is a notable innovation.

Multiplication of special periodicals, labor, fraternal, technical, educational, scientific, of a remarkably high degree of excellence we should catalog as a highly significant development.

Among denominationally established religious weeklies a syndicate plan has recently joined the management of one Baptist paper, the *Examiner*, and four Presbyterian papers, the *Observer*, *Presbyterian Banner*, *Michigan Presbyterian* and *Pacific Presbyterian*. Seventeen state Sunday School journals have recently been syndicated. From another quarter we also read:

"To connect all the universities of the Middle States by wireless telegraph and thereby provide a medium for the free exchange of news for the benefit of student publications, is the hope of the electrical engineering department of the University of Michigan."

A rapid increase of Socialist papers in number and circulation along with a near-Socialist attitude in a growing proportion of the established newspaper press is a current phenomenon of more than passing interest.



THE first newspaper issued in our colonies was published in 1670 by Benjamin Harris at the London Coffee-House, Boston, and was printed by Richard Pierce. There was but one issue and but one copy is known to be in existence, cherished in the Colonial State Paper Office of London. This copy is printed on three pages of a folded sheet, each page eleven by seven and holding two columns. The entire paper, including the editor's prospectus, follows.

PUBLICK

OCCURRENCES

Both FORREIGN and DOMESTICK

Boston, Thursday, Sept. 25th, 1690.

IT is designed that the Countrey shall be furnished once a moneth (or if any Glut of Occurrences happen oftener) with an account of such considerable things as have arrived unto our notice.

In order here unto, the Publisher will take what pains he can to obtain a Faithful Relation of all such things; and will particularly make himself beholden to such persons in Boston whom he knows to have been for their own use the diligent observers of such matters.

That which is herein proposed is, First That Memorable Occurrences of Divine Providence may not be neglected or forgotten, as they too often are. Secondly, That people everywhere may better understand the Circumstances of Publique Affairs, both abroad and at home; which may not only direct their Thoughts at all times, but at some times also to assist their Business and Negotiations.

Thirdly, That some thing may be done towards the Curing, or at least the Charming of that Spirit of Lying, which prevails among us, wherefore nothing shall be entered, but what we have reason to believe is true, repairing to the best fountains for our Information. And when there appears any material mistake in any thing that is collected, it shall be corrected in the next.

Moreover, the Publisher of these Occurrences is willing to engage that whereas there are many False Reports, maliciously made and spread among us, if any well minded will be at the pains to trace any such false Report, so far as to find out and Convict the First Raiser of it, he will in this Paper (unless just Advice be given to the contrary, expose the Name of such person, as A malicious Raiser of a False Report. It is supposed that none will dislike this Proposal, but such as intend to be guilty of so villanous a Crime.

THE Christianized *Indians* in some parts of *Plimouth*, have newly appointed a day of Thanksgiving to God for his mercy in supplying their extream and pinching Necessities under their late want of Corn, and for His giving them now a prospect of a very *Comfortable Harvest*. Their Example may be worth Mentioning.

'Tis observed by the Husbandmen, that altho' the With-draw of so great a strength from them, as what is in the Forces lately

gone for *Canada*, made them think it almost impossible for them to get well through the Affairs of their Husbandry at this time of the year, yet the season has been so unusually favorable that they scarce find any want of the many hundred of hands, that are gone from them; which is looked upon as a merciful Providence.

While the barbarous *Indians* were lurking about *Chelmsford*, there were missing about the beginning of this Month a couple of Children belonging to a man of that Town, one of them aged about eleven, the other aged about nine years, both of them supposed to be fallen into the hands of the *Indians*.

A very *Tragical Accident* happened at *Watertown* the beginning of the Month, an *Old Man*, that was of a somewhat Silent and Morose Temper, but one that had long Enjoyed the reputation of a *Sober* and a *Pious Man*, having newly buried his Wife, The Devil took advantage of the Melancholy which he thereupon fell into, his wives discretion and industry had long been the support of his Family, and he seemed hurried with an impertinent fear that he should now come to want before he dyed, though he had very careful friends to look after him who kept a strict eye upon him, lest he should do himself any harm. But one evening escaping from them into the Cow-house, they there quickly followed him, found *hanging by a Rope*, which they had used to tie their *Calves* withal, he was dead with his feet near touching the Ground.

Epidemical Fevers and *Agues* grow very common, in some parts of the Country, whereof, tho' many dye not, yet they are sorely unfitted for their employments; but in some parts a more *malignant Fever* seems to prevail in such sort that it usually goes thro' a Family where it comes, and proves mortal unto many.

The *Small pox* which has been raging in *Boston*, after a manner very Extraordinary, is now very much abated. It is thought that far more have been sick of it than were visited with it, when it raged so much twelve years ago, nevertheless it has not been so Mortal. The number of them that have dyed in *Boston* by this last Visitation is about *three hundred and twenty*, which is not perhaps half so many as fell by the former. The time of its being most *General*, was in the Months, *June, July* and *August*, then 'twas that sometimes in some one Congregation on a Lords-day there would be Bills desiring prayers for above an *hundred sick*. It seized upon all sorts of people that came in the way of it. 'Tis not easy to relate the Trouble and Sorrow that poor *Boston* has felt by this *Epidemical Contagion*. But we hope it will be pretty nigh Extinguished, by that time twelve-month when it first began to Spread. It now unhappily spreads in several

other places, among which our Garrisons in the *East* are to be reckoned some of the Sufferers.

Altho' *Boston* did a few weeks ago, meet with a Disaster by *Fire*, which consumed about *twenty Houses* near the *Mill-Creek*, yet about midnight, between the sixteenth and seventeenth of this Instant, *another Fire* broke forth near the *South-Meeting-House*, which consumed about five or six homes, and had almost carried the Meeting-house itself, one of the fairest Edifices in the Country, if God had not remarkably assisted the Endeavours of the People to put out the Fire. There were two more considerable Circumstances in the Calamities of this Fire, one was that a young man belonging to the House where the Fire began, unhappily perished in the Flames; it seems that tho' he might sooner awake than some others who did escape, yet he some way lost those Wits that should have taught him to help himself. Another was that the best furnished PRINTING PRESS, of those few that we know of in *America* was lost; a loss not presently to be repaired.

There lately arrived at *Piscataqua*, one *Papoon* from *Penobscot*, in a small Shallop, wherein he had used to attend upon the pleasure of *Casteen*, but took his opportunity to run away, and reports: That a Vessel of small Bulk bound from *Bristol* to *Virginia*, having been so long at Sea, till they were prest with want, put in at *Penobscot* instead of *Piscataqua*, where the *Indians* and *French* seized her, and Butchered the Master, and several of the men; but that himself who belonged unto the Ships Crew, being a *Jersey-man*, was more favorably used and found at length an advantage to make his Escape.

The chief discourse of this month has been about the affairs of the Western Expedition against Canada. The *Albanians*, *New Yorkers* and the five *Nations* of *Indians*, in the *West*, had long been pressing of the *Massachusetts* to make an Expedition by Sea into *Canada*, and still made us believe, that they stayed for us, and that while we assaulted *Quebeck*, they would pass the *Lake*, and by Land make a Descent upon Mount *Real*. Accordingly this Colony with some assistance from our Kind Neighbors of *Plimouth*; fitted an Army of near *five and twenty hundred men*, and a Navy of two and thirty sail; which went from hence the beginning of the last *August* under the Command of the Honourable Sir *William Phipps*.

In the meantime the *English Colonies* and *Provinces* in the *West* raised Forces, the Numbers whereof have been reported five or six hundred. The Honourable General *Winthrop* was in the Head of these, and advanced within a few miles of the *Lake*; He there had some good number of *Maquas* to joyn his Forces, but

contrary to his Expectation, it was found that the Canoo's to have been ready for the transportation of the Army over the *Lake*, were not prepared, and the other Nations of *Indians*, that should have come to this *Campaign*, sent their Excuses, pretending that the Smallpox was among them, and some other Trifles. The General Meeting with such vexing disappointment called a Council of War, wherein 'twas agreed, That it was impossible for them to prosecute their Intended Expedition. However he despatched away the Maqua's to the *French Territories*, who returned with some Success, having slain several of the *French*, and brought home several Prisoners, whom they used in a manner too barbarous for any *English* to approve. The General coming back to *Albany*, there happened a misunderstanding between him and the Lieutenant Governor of *New York* which occasioned much discourse, but produced not those effects which were feared of it. Where lay the bottom of these miscarriages is variously conjectured, if any people further West than *Albany*, have been tampering with the *Indians*, to desert the business of *Canada*, we hope time will discover it. And if Almighty God will have *Canada* to be subdued without the assistance of those miserable Salvages, in whom we have too much confided, we shall be glad, that there will be no sacrifice offered up to the Devil, upon this occasion; God alone will have all the glory.

'Tis possible we have not so exactly related the Circumstances of this business, but the Account, is as near exactness, as any that could be had, in the midst of many various reports about it.

Another late matter of discourse, has been an unaccountable destruction befalling a body of *Indians*, that were our Enemies. This body of *French Indians* had a Fort somewhere far up the River, and a party of Maqua's returning from the *East Country*, where they have at a great rate pursued and terrified those *Indians* which have been invading our *North East* Plantations, and Killed their General Hope Hood among the rest; resolved to visit this Fort; but they found the Fort ruined, the Canoo's cut to pieces, and the people either Butchered or Captived. This gave us no little surprise and they gave the *English* this account of it, That a body of Maqua's lately returning from the spoil of *Canada* brought several *French Prisoners* with them; That calling at this Fort in their way, the *Indians* there seeing themselves unable to resist them did pass divers Compliments with them and partake of their Booties. That a *French* Captive after this, escaping from the Maqua's informed the *French* that these *Indians* had revolted unto the Maqua's, and hereupon the *French* or their *Indians* made a sudden Sally forth upon them, and utterly destroyed them, tho' they were in reality of their own party still.

Two *English Captives* escaped from the hands of *Indians* and *French* at Pscadamoquady, came into Portsmouth on the sixteenth Instant and say, That when Capt. Mason was at Port Real, he cut the faces, and ript the bellies of two *Indians*, and threw a third over board in the sight of the *French*, who informing the other *Indians* of it, they had in revenge barbarously Butcher'd forty Captives of ours that were in their hands.

These two captives escaped in a Shallop, which our enemies intended to have set out with all the Circumstances of a Fishing Shallop but to have indeed filled with *Indians* that should have Clap't on board any *English* Vessel that came in their way; They say that about three or four weeks ago, some *Indians* were coming this way to War, but crossing a path which they supposed to be of the Maqua's, they followed it untill they discovered a place where some Canoo's were making, whereupon twenty *Kennebeck Indian-Warriors* went to look further after the business who never yet returned, Which gives hope that they may come short home but upon this the Squaws are sent to *Penobscot*, and the men stand on their Defence.

Portsmouth, Sept. 20th. Two days since arrived here a small Vessel from *Barbadoes*, in which is a letter to Captain H. K. of 19th *August* that speaks thus,

Christophers is wholly taken from the *French* as also a small island called *Stacia*; we are very strong in Shipping, and our Ships of War are now gone for *Tobago*, a very good place to shelter from any Storms, after the suspicious months are over, they will Attack the rest of the *French* places. We have News here that K. William is safe arrived in *Ireland*, and is marched with one hundred and forty thousand Foot and Horse. Himself leads the Body, Duke Scomburgh the right Wing, and the Earl of Oxford the left Wing, Duke Hamilton of Scotland leads the forlorn Hope with ten thousand men under him, Great victory they dayly have, and much people daily come in to him, with submission; He has 200 Shipping with him of one sort or other, above one hundred Sail dayly run between *Ireland* and *England*, with meat for Man and Beast; His Majesty being unwilling to trust false *Ireland* for it. *France* is in much trouble (and fear not only with us but also with his Son, who has revolted against him lately, and has great reason) if reports be true. He has got all the *Hugonots*, and all the dissatisfied Papists, with the great force of the D. of Loraigh, and are now against him, resolving to depose him of his Life and Kingdom.

It's Reported the City of *Cork* in *Ireland* has proclaimed

K. William and turned their *French* Landlords out of Doors: of this there wants further confirmation.

From *Plimouth* Sept. 22, We have an Account that on *Friday* the 12th Instant, in the night, our Forces Landing privately, forthwith surrounded *Pegypscot* Fort; but finding no *Indians* there, they March'd to *Amonoscoggin*. There on the Lords-day, they kill'd and took 15 or 16 of the Enemy, and recovered five *English* Captives, mostly belonging to Oyster River; who advised that the men had been gone about ten days down to a River, to meet with the *French*, and the *French Indians*; where they expected to make up a Body of 200 men, and design first against *Wells* or *Piscataqua*.

On *Tuesday*, the Army came to our Vessels at *Macquoit*, but one of the Vessels touching a Ground stopt a Tide; by which means young *Bracket*, who was a considerable distance up the River, above *Amonoscoggin* Fort, being advised by an Indian that ran away from *Amonoscoggin*, that an *English* Army was there attempted his Escape, and came down to the Sloop just as they came on their Sail.

On *Thursday*, they landed at *Saco*; a Scout of 60 men of ours discovered a party of the enemy, and had the Advantage of Killing three of them, and of taking *nine Canoo's*, and an English captive named, *Thomas Baker*, who informed, that the Enemy had left a considerable Plunder at *Pegypscot-Plains*, which he supposed the Enemy was gone to secure.

Whereupon, the Army immediately embark'd, and arriving there that night, the next morning found the Bever Plunder accordingly.

While our Vessels were at Anchor in *Cascoe Bay*, our Auxiliary Indians lodging on shore, and being too careless in their Watch, the Enemy made an Attaque upon them. The English forthwith repair'd to their Relief; but were sorely galled by an Embuscade of Indians. The Enemy soon quitted the field, escaping with their Canoo's whereof ours took several. In the Surprise, we lost 9 men, and had about 20 wounded; the blow chiefly fell on our dear *Friends*, the *Plimouth Forces*, 15 being killed and wounded of Captain *Southworth's* Company.

The Vesper Hour

Under the direction of Chancellor John H. Vincent

THE HABIT OF WORK*

By Professor Hugh Black of Union Theological Seminary.

Do the duty that lies nearest to thee.

Thy second duty will already become clearer.

—*Carlyle.*

The secret of order and proportion in our studies is
the true secret of economy in time.

—*P. G. Hamerton.*

The place of habit in life can hardly be overestimated. Habit works a groove for us into which we fall easily and in which we move swiftly, so that the great bulk of our actions are done automatically, and the whole trend of our life is established. Habit cuts a pathway from the brain through the nerve-centers, until after a time a thing is done almost mechanically. We do not stop to think how we will walk when we want to go anywhere. We have laboriously acquired the art of walking, till it is done without any conscious attention. The law extends its sway over every region of life. We have gone on doing acts and making judgments along a certain line till it could be foretold what we will do on any one occasion. No wonder that all moralists make much of the importance of the formation of habits. It is the way character is formed, and life is moulded, and destiny is fixed.

We usually hear of the evil of this great force, the power of bad habits and the difficulty of breaking them. Habit is spoken of as if it were a diabolic influence menacing us on every side. We forget that it is a law of life designed for its best interests. We forget that it is full of good and blessing, and is meant not to destroy but to conserve and strengthen human life. If this force is meant as a preservative, it is in its deepest intention an inducement to good habit; and the law is as strong on this side as on the other. It ought always to be remembered that the odds are on the side of health and good; and in every sincere moral endeavor we put both nature and God on our side. If by reason of use evil can lay hold and grasp the mastery, so by reason of use good also grows—faith, and love, and moral vigor, and spiritual vision. By reason of use good habits attain and secure and increase good.

*From Professor Black's volume entitled "Work" published in 1903 and here printed by kind permission of the publishers, The Fleming H. Revell Company.

There is no habit more important than the habit of work, because it is open to all of us in our place and degree, and because to most the working hours mean a big slice of our lives.

. . . Nothing will make up for the want of this habit of work, either in the particular line or in the effect on the character. No brilliance or quickness or cleverness or special aptitude can make up for want of it. There is a profound truth in the old fables, like that of the hare beaten by the tortoise even in its own line of running. Sir Joshua Reynolds, who preached this doctrine untiringly, says in his Second Discourse on the Method of Study: "If you have great talents industry will improve them; if you have but moderate abilities industry will supply their deficiency. Nothing is denied to well-directed labor; nothing is to be obtained without it. Not to enter into metaphysical discussions on the nature or essence of genius, I will venture to assert that assiduity unabated by difficulty and a disposition eagerly directed to the object of its pursuit, will produce effects similar to those which some call the result of natural powers." There should be some necessary qualification here, especially in speaking about art. It might tempt some, who have no aptitude, to think that labor alone is enough for any branch of work.

There is truth in Hazlitt's criticism that industry alone will only produce mediocrity, and mediocrity in art is not worth the trouble of industry. Efforts of course may be misguided and end in inevitable failure. Application the most laborious can never take the place of the initial gift, without which high art is impossible. But allowing for this, Sir Joshua's preaching of industry and the persistent habit of labor may well be taken to heart. Careless, slovenly work is responsible for more failures in art than any other cause. Men trust to what they call their genius, and many a gifted artist has never come to his kingdom because he has never learned to toil. It is one of the subtlest temptations in all productive work, whether it be painting pictures, or writing books, or preparing sermons, or pursuing any subject of study, to trust to happy inspirations, with the result that desultory efforts alternate with long spells of indolence. It not only hurts the work, but it hurts the morale of the worker.

There is no finer lesson from the lives of many scientific workers of our time than that of the patient investigation and tireless labor with which they pursue their branch of truth. Darwin in a letter to Romanes refers to this as a necessity if a man is to advance any science at all. . . . Here in its own degree, in the sphere of scientific truth as in the sphere of spiritual truth, it is by reason of use that the senses are exercised to dis-

cern good and evil. To accept our work as part of our duty, to cultivate it as a habit, is to safeguard our lives from many a mistake and error, and even from many a sin. We are traitors to our opportunities and gifts unless we make them the servants of habit.

Many illustrations could be culled from the lives and writings of great men, showing how they cultivated this habit till it was ingrained both in their work and in their characters. Take just one other illustration, this time a very different type of man from Sir Joshua Reynolds or Darwin—Lord Macaulay, whose work is often ignorantly thought facile and shallow. One thing certainly in it is its amazing industry, the patience and energy with which he carried on his historical investigations, whether we accept his conclusions or not. Thackeray gives him deserved credit in this. "Take at hazard any three pages of the *Essays or History*: and glimmering below the stream of the narrative you, an average reader, see one, two, three, a half-score of allusions to other historical facts, characters, literature, poetry, with which you are acquainted. Your neighbor, who has *his* reading and *his* little stock of literature stowed away in his mind, shall detect more points, allusions, happy touches, indicating not only the prodigious memory and vast learning of this master, but the wonderful industry, the honest, humble, previous toil of this great scholar. He reads twenty books to write a sentence; he travels a hundred miles to make a line of description." This is no exaggeration. We see from his private journal the terrible toil he pledged himself to undertake for the writing of the second part of his history—visits to Holland, Belgium, Scotland, Ireland, France; ransacking Dutch and French archives; turning over thousands of pamphlets; exploring in libraries; soaking his mind in the literature of the period.

True success in working will only come from treating work itself as an art, the best methods of which have to be learned and practiced. A man must bring himself into discipline before he becomes a perfect instrument for his work. No great work of art is possible without previous training in the art of work. When the habit of industry is ingrained in a man's nature he has mastered the art, although his methods of working may be peculiar to himself. Illustrations from literature are specially valuable in treating of this subject, because it is a sphere in which a man is usually thought to be altogether dependent on intuition and inspiration. We speak vaguely of "genius" as explaining any achievement in writing; but we only need to know a little of the inner

literary history of any time or country to see what toil lies back of what we call genius.

Even those forms of art which appear most spontaneous, such as poetry and music; are not struck off at a flash, or if any single piece of work seems to be so struck off, that is made possible by years of past training. Improvisation can only be done by one who is a master of his art. Even Shakespeare, who is often spoken of as an improvisatore, was a careful artist, as can be seen by comparing the first edition of one of his plays with the later editions. This can also be seen in the remarkable growth and intellectual development displayed in the order of his works which has been at least approximately established by critics. Beginning with adaptations of other plays, improving upon every model he took, his growing power in dramatic art and in rich mellow wisdom can be traced.

To speak of any man as a careful artist does not mean that every piece of work needs to be retouched and gone over again and again with painstaking industry; but that the capacity to do anything with finish and delicacy, however easily, has come from previous years of training. Tennyson's *Crossing the Bar* was written in his eighty-first year on a day in October when the suggestion for it came to him. He showed the poem to his son, who said, "That is the crown of your life's work." He answered, "It came in a moment." But no one as a rule put such fastidious and exacting care into his work as did Tennyson, correcting and polishing and revising. In all great art we are deceived by the appearance of ease, with no joints and no marks of the file anywhere. We see the artist's finished work, but we do not see the hundreds of sketches made for that work, and all the training of eye and hand and taste without which the work would have been impossible. The capacities have been brought into efficiency by intense and persistent labor. When we look on a great completed work, such as Milton's *Paradise Lost*, or Gibbon's *Decline and Fall*, or Michael Angelo's Last Judgment—to take great achievements in different spheres—we are inclined to forget all that led up to them. We think of them as a kind of miracle outside cause and effect, and attribute them vaguely to the inspiration of genius. An unremitting habit of work was one of the secrets which made such achievements possible. This is not to say that if any man will only persist in similar intense toil he will rival Milton's epic but it does mean that without such toil the epic would never have seen the light of day. Only through habit will the intellectual concentration needed for any high work become part of a man's endowment.

Even style, which is thought to be in a special degree a heaven-born gift, can only be perfected by the scrupulous training of fastidious taste. It is difficult to say what are the qualities which give distinction to style—a delicacy of ear, sensitiveness to the music of words, a sort of instinctive knowledge of the value of vowels and consonants in the building of a sentence—but such a gift remains only an aptitude till it has received careful discipline. If any writer of our time could be called a “stylist” it was Robert Louis Stevenson, and we might just have accepted it as one of his natural gifts if he had not so frankly revealed the long training to which he subjected the gift. There were years of labor before he had his instrument ready for its work. Even after he attained fame he would write an article seven or eight times over, and in his early days he toiled terribly in learning to write, “playing the sedulous ape” to many masters. In a letter to a friend he wrote, “I imagine nobody had ever such pains to learn a trade as I had; but I slogged at it day in and day out; and I frankly believe (thanks to my dire industry) I have done more with smaller gifts than almost any man of letters in the world.” Genius cannot be explained as an infinite capacity to take pains, for without that something we call genius the pains will be wasted; but a passion for an art which shows itself in such a way is a presumptive evidence of genius, sufficient at least to go on with.

In the whole matter of habit, decision is the master-key. We must learn to act on the spur. The hardest thing is to begin, to overcome the inertia and mental sluggishness. Some men are always preparing for work, which usually means postponing any serious effort and ends in a mere waste of time. There are many ways of deluding ourselves about our industry, and ministering all the time to our innate indolence. Especially in intellectual work it is easy to put off beginning a task with the excuse that we are not ready for it, that we have not read and thought enough, that we are not in the mood at present, or that we need to make more preparation. We go on improving our implements for work which is never attempted, as if an artisan were to be perpetually sharpening his tools and never putting them to any practical use. The worst of it is that indecision like this has an effect on the character, and weakens the whole capacity. No new habit can be begun without a hard struggle, or continued without constant effort. It will be all the better if there is at the beginning some enthusiasm, a definite resolution to pursue some task in worthy fashion; but watchful and jealous care is

needed before the habit is formed. Later on, when the apprenticeship may be said to be completed, it works almost automatically. The laboriousness of any work is lessened by the dexterity which comes from habit. As we accustom ourselves to the work, we gain power not only over our material, but over ourselves. This at least is certain, that nothing is permanently secured to us till it passes into a habit. . . .

Another principle of the art of working is to accustom oneself to take advantage of portions of time that seem too small for serious work. The concentration which habit induces makes it possible to use even scraps of time for some intellectual interest or for some useful service. One of the secrets of Mr. Gladstone's untiring activity was his regularity and economy of time. His motto seemed to be, Never be doing nothing. At a railway station or at odd times, when others would be waiting listlessly, out would come the inevitable book to enrich his mind. In Newman Hall's *Autobiography* an incident is told of him in 1864, when a Cabinet Minister and one of the busiest of men. "The rector of St. Martin's-in-the-Fields visited one of his parishioners, a street sweeper, who was ill, and being asked if anybody had been to see him, replied 'Yes, Mr. Gladstone.' 'What Gladstone?' 'Why, Mr. Gladstone himself. He often speaks to me at my crossing, and missing me, he asked my mate if I was ill and where I lived, and so came to see me and read the Bible to me.' " It was the liberal following of the apostolic injunction, "As we have therefore opportunity, let us do good unto all men;" but the opportunity needs to be seized, bought up with the avidity of a merchant on the alert for a good purchase.

Success in the art of working depends very much on method. It is not possible, however, to dogmatize about what are the right methods, as here more than anywhere else one man's food is another man's poison. Anthony Trollope's methods of working would drive some authors crazy. He tells us in his *Autobiography* that when he commenced a new book he prepared a diary, and entered into it day by day the number of pages he wrote, so that if at any time he slipped into idleness for a day, the record was there staring him in the face and demanding increased labor to supply the deficiency. . . .

. . . . There have been men whose whole capacity to produce would be destroyed if they had to conform to these methods. The right method for a man is that which will enable him to do his best work. The one important thing is that he should learn the lesson of industry.



MARCH

As if to lift man's mind from baser things
The heavens employ now every swift caprice:
The threescore Winds and four they give release,
Whistling them on, lashing with heedless stings;
Frown follows smile, smile frown, in ceaseless rings;
Swift cirrus-shoals scud by—slow cumuli fleece,—
Hail-leaden thunder-caps Spring's sap-joy freeze,—
And then the sunshine all its gladness flings.
The chastened trees bow low but rise again,
Thrilled with new purpose, root and bark and grain;
The early flowers, love-chidden, close their eyes,
Then open smiling, ere the rain-drop dries;
And boyhood fancy takes its fledgling flights
Watching the March sky filled with tugging kites.

—Charles Elmer Jenney.



TO MEMBERS OF THE SHAKESPEARE CLASS

Possible experiences of the members of 1912, the graduating class, might be expressed in Shakespearean language as follows:

The reader who fails to finish before Recognition Day:
"It was my negligence not weighing well the end."

President of a Circle, addressing fellow classmates:
"Be of good cheer; they shall no more prevail than we give way to."

The warning to an over-confident reader: "You do think you are not what you are."

Another gentle warning: "Be wary then. Best safety lies in fear."

The beginning of a song of victory: "For courage mounteth with occasion."

The key to the whole situation: "He persists as if his life lay on't."



MORE SEALS

Graduate members of the Guild of the Seven Seals are beginning to look with rather more than hungry glances at that "Highest Order" known as the Inner Circle. If you are a graduate and do not possess a copy of the little brown-covered pamphlet called "Special Course Hand Book," by all means send to the Chautauqua office and secure one. The wealth of courses already set forth in it are alluring enough to tempt even the rather sluggish member who is resting on past laurels, and each year a few new courses are added to remind every progressive member that the C. L. S. C. is keeping well ahead.



POINTS FROM A COLLEGE PRESIDENT

"The Philosophy of Opposition." This is the phrase by which the new President of Princeton University, Dr. John Grier Hibben, describes the views of the German philosopher, Fichte. His theory was, in the words of Dr. Hibben, "that in the making of a man, power is born of opposition; that struggle begets strength; that resistance provokes vigor of body and of spirit, and that the very obstacles to progress make progress possible."

This is genuine Chautauqua doctrine—any readers who come across Dr. Hibben's little volume of essays called "A Defence of Prejudice" will find it full of fresh and stimulating thoughts.



JANE ADDAMS

Jane Addams, whose "Twenty Years at Hull-House,"

the fourth book read in the American Year, tells the story of the author's life in terms of spiritual as well as of physical experience, was born in Illinois and in Illinois has passed the years of her usefulness. The time of preparation for the work that dawned upon her even in childhood was spent in part at Rockford College and in Europe, while she was growing to an understanding of the way in which she might fit her personal need for giving service to the needs of those of less opportunity. A recital of Miss Addams's work as head of Hull-House, as street inspector, as a member of the School Board and of numberless associations having to do with industrial and social reform gives but an inadequate idea of the scope of her activities or of the extent of her influence. Her sympathy, her initiative, her sanity of thought and action, her wisdom have made her the foremost woman in the United States.



Verses Worth Memorizing

THE CHAMBERED NAUTILUS

This is the ship of pearl, which, poets feign,
Sails the unshadowed main,—
The venturous bark that flings
On the sweet summer wind its purple wings
In gulfs enchanted, where the Siren sings,
And coral reefs lie bare,
Where the cold sea-maids rise to sun their streaming hair.

Its webs of living gauze no more unfurl;
Wrecked is the ship of pearl!
And every chambered cell,
Where its dim dreaming life was wont to dwell,
As the frail tenant shaped his growing shell,
Before thee lies revealed,—
Its irised ceiling rent, its sunless crypt unsealed!

Year after year beheld the silent toil
That spread his lustrous coil;
Still, as the spiral grew,
He left the past year's dwelling for the new,
Stole with soft step its shining archway through,
Built up its idle door,
Stretched in his last-found home, and knew the old no more.

Thanks for the heavenly message brought by thee,
Child of the wandering sea,
Cast from her lap, forlorn!
From thy dead lips a clearer note is born
Then ever Triton blew from wreathéd horn!
While on mine ear it rings,
Through the deep caves of thought I hear a voice that sings:
Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul,
As the swift seasons roll!
Leave thy low-vaulted past!
Let each new temple, nobler than the last,
Shut thee from heaven with a dome more vast,
Till thou at length art free,
Leaving thine outgrown shell by life's unresting sea!

—*Oliver Wendell Holmes.*

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NEWS FROM CIRCLES AND READERS

"Today I am going to read you some of the pleasant letters that have been coming to my desk lately," said Pen-dragon, taking up a handful of envelopes. "Here, for instance, is a correspondent from Jersey Shore, Pennsylvania, who says:

"I have been a reader of the C. L. S. C. for many, many years; and I have THE CHAUTAUQUANS when they were the old, large, brown-covered ones, stored in the attic now as curios. I have completed the course four times but have never been able to go to Chautauqua to graduate. I have been instrumental in inducing many to take the course of reading. This is the twenty-eighth year of the Circle here in Jersey Shore and some of the first year's students are grandmothers now and still belong to

the Circle. We have had Bishop Vincent visit us twice—last time we gave him a reception and I was honored by being chosen to give him an address of welcome. Last year Dr. Howell visited us and we hope some time Miss Kimball may. We did so enjoy the Cathedrals from her pen. We are finding the reading on South America very interesting.

"Here," said Pendragon, "is a note from a group of new readers who have found themselves converted to the systematic habit. It is written from 'Schenectady, New York,' and says:

"We are all enjoying the work. As all but one of the ladies are housekeepers, and most of them without maids, we planned at our preliminary meeting to bring our work to the meetings, which occur every two weeks, between three and five or five-thirty o'clock, and to serve very simple refreshments. Now for the most important thing—the work. The ladies were timid about "reading any papers," or in any way taking hold. What we are doing now is to meet at three. The hostess of the last meeting acts as leader. She reads the roll call. Each lady answers with a quotation from the prescribed reading, or a magazine article bearing on a subject under consideration. We all become very much interested, there are lively discussions, and usually we forget all about the needle work we brought and—before we realize it, tea is served and we must go home, for it is a rule we set ourselves to be out of our hostess's house at five-thirty. We are especially interested in International Peace and the South American Journey. If things continue as they have begun I think we shall all have certificates at the end of the required time, even though few of the ladies felt at first that they could give the required time."

"South Africa has been active in C. L. S. C. work for a long time," continued Pendragon, and I know that you'll be interested in these two letters. The secretary of the South African C. L. S. C. writes from Witzihoek, Orange Free State, Africa."

"It may interest you and your readers to know that the South African Chautauqua still lives, grows, and continues to do good work out here. We just had our seventh yearly Assembly at Kestell, Orange Free State, which was a very great success. The only difference between you and us is the language, because we use both English and Dutch, although Dutch predominates. In spirit and aim we are one. Through our C. L. S. C. we have learned to know about you in America more than we ever did before. We study your history, literature, and social problems. We find so much in your history that corresponds with our own, that we like you for that and besides as a young nation we find that we can learn much from your advanced civilization."

"Now I am going to read a letter that was written to an ardent worker who was at Chautauqua, New York, last summer. It is dated Red Dragons, Oudtshome, Cape Province, South Africa."

"I was very pleased to have your letter from Chautauqua. How I wish I could have been there! I'm sure if I do turn up there in 1913 to graduate you'll do me the honour to come to see me go through the Golden Gate. I have received this year's certificate and my corrected papers which fetched me 95 per cent. My boy was so amused at me when, on opening the paper, I exclaimed in disappointment, "Only 95 per cent." "Why, Mammy," he cried, "only 95, isn't that good enough?" He is going to frame the certificates for our study-library-sitting room."

"So many circles have been interested in starting libraries that I am sure all of you will like to hear what the people at Floral, Alabama, have been doing. This letter came to me some months ago, so probably the new institution is opened by this time."

"We are still working on the Library. However, we have furnished the room very neatly, have a book case and a number of books donated. The Selma Circle sent a nice box of books and a few clubs have sent single books. We are now ready for our "Opening" as soon as we form a Library Association and get the cards and slips. It takes time to get information and get things in running order."

"The Safford, Alabama, Circle is full of good work and of local usefulness," went on Pendragon. "You can see from the picture what a happy group it is." "That is quite evident," laughed the Man Across the Table. "Do you happen to know," he went on, "how the arrangements for the celebration of 87's twenty-fifth anniversary are coming on?" "The secretary is having pleasant letters from old friends all the time," returned Pendragon. "She sent me a collection of clippings from them the other day."

From California—"Yes, I graduated at South Farmington, then from Leland Stanford University; am married but still am interested in the C. L. S. C. and the Pansy Class."

From Kentucky—"We celebrate the 27th anniversary of the C. L. S. C. the same year, but will not let that keep us from the Mother Chautauqua. We are a live class, even if old—count us in."

From Kansas—"Yes, I remember the four girls in white. They made me a paper pansy which I shall take with me in 1912! The Chautauqua Course was my first opportunity to get an outlook, a light or something to help me to understand the nothingness of this mortal material existence and the Allness of Mind. I try each day to add something to my store. I am so hungry to visit the dear old place again."

From Indiana—"Your card at hand and I was glad. As the saying goes, 'Once a Chautauquan, always a Chautauquan'."

From Massachusetts—"Your card traveled a long way to find me. I was burned out of my home in Chelsea in 1908 after living there forty years—and with it went my diploma with its many seals."

"We'll see that she has a duplicate given her when she reaches Chautauqua next summer," said Pendragon.

"Winfield," said a Kansan, "has had a revival of C. L. S. C. enthusiasm. Perhaps it should be called an 'extension' of enthusiasm to a larger number of people, for Winfield Chautauquans have never lost enthusiasm. I don't believe Chautauquans ever do. I have never known or heard of a 'backslider'." "Nor we, nor we," came cries from all over the room. "The revival began with the splendid work of Miss Hamilton, the Field Secretary, at the Assembly in July, and was further developed through the activities of the permanent office which the Winfield board established and which has enrolled about fifty members of the Jane Addams Class beside many of the old readers. Winfield alone has three Circles and some independent readers and informal groups." "When we say 'Winfield' as applied to matters Chautauquan," broke in another Kansan, "we mean more than the beautiful little town on the Walnut. We mean the territory of the Island Park Assembly; and when I remind you that Island Park has graduated about four hundred people, which is nearly half of all the Kansas graduates for the past twenty-five years, you will know that we have been giving some attention to the reading course." "Bishop Vincent says it is the 'soul' of the Chautauqua movement, so you ought to," commented Pendragon. "The Winfield territory includes," went on the first speaker, "well, not so large an area as it used to, for there are more Assemblies, but it includes—" "Sylvia, for instance," cried a fresh, clear voice. "Yes, Sylvia carried off one of the diplomas for 1911. And when that diploma reached the little town of West Winfield it excited so much enthusiasm that a vigorous Circle of sixteen sprang into being, all but two, members of the Jane Addams Class." "An Englishman born and reared in London has been a valuable help," added the Sylvian, "especially in the study of the first book of this year." "Sylvia is one of the new Circles," explained still another Kansan. "The older Circles, too, are showing fine interest. College Hill Circle in Winfield, after a lapse of two years, was hungry for the reading again and was reorganized amid great rejoicing at a social meeting early in October. A remarkable member of this circle is one of the graduates of 1911, a former college professor, now seventy-three years old. At his suggestion this Circle gave a thorough reading to Bishop Vincent's latest Baccalaureate sermon, using it by para-

graphs for a roll call. The class greatly enjoyed the richness of this sermon, as they discovered it for themselves, nugget by nugget."

"We of the Charles Dickens Circle of Arkansas City, which is joined to Winfield by interurban," began a member, "think that it is distinguished by several superior advantages. One of these is its much traveled president, who has seen most of the important countries of the world, and is, of course, familiar with the sources of culture in these lands. She regards Chautauqua as the best means for general culture that she has found. In her travels last summer she made a motor trip through England. Imagine the interest she added to the study of the 'Twentieth Century American'!" "Wichita, too, belongs to us," continued the first enthusiast, "though as a city she is bigger than we are. Wichita last summer sent us a graduate having thirteen seals including the Crown Seal. This achievement broke all records in seal work at Island Park." "Blackwell also belongs to the Winfield territory," said an Oklahoman, "and is a Circle to be proud of. These Chautauquans have managed an excellent lecture course for years and have raised the money and purchased a good nucleus for a city library. They have made Blackwell know that Chautauqua means culture for the people."

"I belong to Winfield too, but I am reading alone in Topeka this winter," said a man with a legal air and a strong, square jaw. "This is my ninth year. Each year is new. There has been no duplication. A Chautauqua reader gets the advantage of careful examination of reading matter by educated men, and much time is saved thereby to the reader."

"I am much interested in your mention of Miss Hamilton," said the secretary of the Vincent Circle of Pacific Grove, California. "We cannot speak too highly of her work. She lectured for us twice to good audiences and the assembly management would only be too glad to secure her services next July." "We all admire her tremendously," cried an eager voice. "Our Vincent Circle is doing well this year, and showing great enthusiasm in the work. At our



Plantation Circle, Safford, Alabama



**Centerville (Tennessee) Circle—taken at the house of a member
at Vernon, Tennessee**



Graduates of the Class of 1911 at Island Park, Winfield, Kansas.
They are keeping on with their reading



1911 Alumni Banquet, Recognition Day, July 10, Winfield, Kansas,
Miss Meddie O. Hamilton, Field Secretary, C. L. S. C.,
Toastmistress



Chautauqua Park, Island Park, Winfield, Kansas



**Alpha C. L. S. C. of Enid, Oklahoma, organized in 1899, and the oldest in the State. Picture taken on Guest Day, May, 1911.
First row, Class of 1911**



First M. E. Church, Bridgeport, Connecticut



Soldiers' and Sailors' Monument, Syracuse,
New York

last meeting, after the regular work for the evening was finished we resolved ourselves into a Christmas and New Year's party, sang songs, told jokes, exchanged New Year's presents, partook of refreshments, and closed by singing

"Chautauqua days we love, my dear,
Chautauqua days we sing,
We'll take a course of reading yet,
Chautauqua is the thing."

"We people of Palisade live where the finest peaches in the world grow," said a Coloradoan, "and we are so accustomed to fine things that it doesn't surprise us a bit that we have an ultra-fine circle." "Colorado is a land of splendors," said Pendragon. "We did not organize until October, but we had no trouble in securing thirty-six members. We meet once a week at the different homes, and as we have had delightful weather this winter there has been nothing to hinder everybody's coming every time." "Our Christmas guest meeting was tremendously successful," said another Palisadean who happened in just at this moment. "We gathered in a charmingly decorated room and had speeches and music and a jolly little farce to listen to, and good things to eat. Between sixty-five and seventy members and guests were present and the Chautauqua Circle received an impetus which advanced it in the opinion of Palisade people as a factor in the educational and social life of the community." "I'm for the larger C. L. S. C. work now and always," exclaimed the first enthusiast amid approving applause.



C. L. S. C. MOTTOES

*"We study the Word and the Works of God."
"Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."
"Never be Discouraged."*



C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS

SPECIAL SUNDAY —May, second Sunday.	OPENING DAY —October 1.
INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY —May 18.	BRYANT DAY —November 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY —July, second Sunday.	SPECIAL SUNDAY —November, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY —August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.	MILTON DAY —December 9.
ST. PAUL'S DAY —August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.	COLLEGE DAY —January, last Thursday.
RECOGNITION DAY —August, third Wednesday.	LANIER DAY —February 3.
	SPECIAL SUNDAY —February, second Sunday.
	LONGFELLOW DAY —February 27.
	SHAKESPEARE DAY —April 23.
	ADDISON DAY —May 1.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READINGS FOR APRIL

FIRST WEEK—MARCH 25-APRIL 1

"Chile" (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, "Reading Journey through South America," VII).

"The Moving Picture and the Funny Side" (Journalism and Humor) (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, "As We See Ourselves," VII).

"Sanitary Engineering" (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, "American Engineering," VII).

SECOND WEEK—APRIL 1-8

"What a Life Work was Built Upon" (Addams's "Twenty Years at Hull-House," Chapters I, II, III, IV).

THIRD WEEK—APRIL 8-15

"Early Problems and Undertakings" (Addams, Chapters V, VI, VII, VIII).

FOURTH WEEK—APRIL 15-22

"Chicago Awakens to Social Interest" (Addams, Chapters IX, X, XI).

FIFTH WEEK—APRIL 22-29

This extra week may be utilized for reviews, for the elaboration of topics which have been crowded during the year, and for the presentation of supplementary material.



SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES

MARCH 25-APRIL 1

1. *Map Talk.* "Chile."
2. *Roll Call.* "Brief biographies of great Chileans" (as Magellan, Valdivia, Valbues, Montt, Perez, Pinto, Balmaceda, Zañartú, Vicuña, etc).
3. *Report* of a committee appointed to investigate the sanitation of your town.
4. *Talk.* "How a Newspaper is Made" (This may be an address by a newspaper man, or it may be the result of a personal investigation of the local press, supplemented by reading. See "Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature" under "Journalism" for a wealth of suggestions. Some of the topics to be taken up should be "How news is gathered;" "How news is written;" "The editorial page;" "The manufacture.")
5. *Debate* on "The Value of the Comic Supplement."
6. *Reading* from "Aspects of Journalism" by Rollo Ogden in the *Atlantic*, July, 1906, or "Dramatic Literature and Theatrical Journalism" by Clayton Hamilton in *The Forum* for February, 1909.

APRIL 1-8

1. *Composite Story* of "Chile's Relations with Bolivia and Peru" (Akers's "A History of South America;" Clark's "Continent of Opportunity;" Dawson's "South American Republics," part II; Pepper's "Panama to Patagonia.")
2. *Book Review* of "Independence of Chile" by A. S. M. Chisholm.
3. *Talk.* "Illustrated Journalism" ("After the World's News with a Camera" by Fitz-Gerald in *Harper's Weekly*, February 16,

- 1907; "Illustrated Weekly Papers" in *International Studies* for May, 1905; "Pictorial Journalism" by Richards in *World Today*, August, 1905; for current history in cartoons see numbers of *Current Literature*, *Review of Reviews*, etc.; "Oppen, Outcault & Company" by McCardell in *Everybody's* for June, 1905).
4. *Tributes* to Lincoln's influence—original and selected.
 5. *Discussion* on the value of European training for American girls.
 6. *Paper*. "Alexander Selkirk and the Island of Juan Fernandez;" illustrated by readings from "Robinson Crusoe."

APRIL 8-15

1. *Historical Sketch*. "Chile and the United States" (Akers; Dawson; "Spirited Foreign Policy of the United States" by Peck in the *Bookman*, June, 1905).
2. *Roll Call*. "Great American Journalists."
3. *Debate* on "The Value of Muckraking."
4. *Paper*. "History, Aims, and Methods of Social Settlements" (see many articles on different phases listed under "Social Settlements" in the "Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature.")
5. *Book Review*. "Newer Ideals of Peace" by Jane Addams.
6. *Recitation*. "Humor" by J. K. Bangs in *Putnam's* for October, 1907.

APRIL 15-22

1. *Roll Call*. "Industries and Resources of Chile" (Akers; Clark; Curtis's "Between the Andes and the Ocean;" Pepper; "Bituminous Coal of Chile" in *Pan-American Bulletin* for April, 1911; "Chemical Laboratory of Nature" by Winter in *World Today*, February, 1911; "Chile in 1910" in *Pan-American Bulletin* for August, 1911).
2. *Reading* from "The New Era in Our Relations with Latin America" by Welliver in *Munsey's* for October, 1911.
3. *Roll Call*. "Quotations from Great American Humorists."
4. *Discussion* on "Co-operation between Capital and Labor."
5. *Report* of committee appointed to investigate local work for immigrants.
6. *Book Review*. "The Spirit of Youth and the City Streets" by Jane Addams.
7. *Reading*. "You can't be funny all the time" by Jerome K. Jerome in *Cosmopolitan* for May, 1906.



TRAVEL CLUB

Travel Clubs should be provided with Hale's "Practical Guide to Latin America," with a large map of South America, and with individual outline maps of South America and of each country in South America which each member may fill in as the study progresses. Photographs, picture postcards, or pictures in books of all buildings and places mentioned should be exhibited.

A general bibliography of the Reading Journey through South America will be found in the September Magazine. If any clubs or libraries can provide but two books for supplementary reading they should be Dawson's "The South American Republics" and Hale's "The South Americans." Of great contemporary interest is

the "Bulletin" published by the Pan American Union, Washington, D. C. This is a handsomely illustrated monthly magazine whose subscription price is \$2.00 a year. Every Travel Club will find a subscription worth while.

FIRST WEEK

1. *Map Talk*. "Chile."
2. *Roll Call*. "Brief biographies of great Chileans" (as Magellan, Valdivia, Bulnes, Montt, Perez, Pinto, Balmaceda, Zañartú, Vicuña, etc.).
3. *Summary* of "Cardinal Pole or the Days of Philip and Mary," W. Harrison Ainsworth.
4. *Historical Sketch*. "Chile's Relations with Bolivia and Peru" (Akers's "A History of South America;" Clark's "Continent of Opportunity;" Dawson's "South American Republics," Part II; Pepper's "Panama to Patagonia.")
5. *Paper*. "Chile and the United States" (Akers; Dawson; "Spirited Foreign Policy of the United States" by Peck in *Bookman*, June, 1905).
6. *Reading* from "The Toll of the Straits" by Furlong in *Outing* for October, 1911.

SECOND WEEK

1. *Composite Description*. "Population of Chile" (Akers; Pepper, etc.).
2. *Book Review* of "Independence of Chile" by A. S. M. Chisholm.
3. *Original Story*. "Adventures in the Uspallata Pass" (Ruhl's "The Other Americans;" Curtis's "Between the Andes and the Ocean; Clark).
4. *Paper*. "Chilean Commerce" (Akers; "Commercial Relations of Chile" by Janes in *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Philadelphia, for May, 1911; "Foreign Commerce in Chile" in *Pan-American Bulletin*, April, 1911; "South American Trade" by Davies in *Advertising and Selling*).
5. *Talk*. "Christ of the Andes"—history, significance, artistic merit.
6. *Reading* from "The Andean Garden of the Gods" by Alvord in *the Century* for September, 1911.

THIRD WEEK

1. *Paper*. "Industries and Resources of Chile" (Akers; Clark; Curtis's "Between the Andes and the Ocean;" Pepper; "Bituminous Coal of Chile" in *Pan-American Bulletin* for April, 1911; "Chemical Laboratory of Nature," by Winter in *World Today*, February, 1911.
2. *Reading* from "The New Era in Our Relations with Latin America" by Welliver in *Munsey* for October, 1911.
3. *Letter of Introduction* from an inhabitant of Valparaíso to a visitor about to see its sights (Akers; Clark; Curtis; Pepper; Ruhl).
5. *Composite Story* of "Robinson Crusoe."
6. *Reading* from "New England in South America" by J. G. Van Marter in *Outlook* for June 22, 1907.

FOURTH WEEK

1. *Paper*. "Education in Chile" (Akers; Clark).
2. *Review* of the sketch of Chile published by the International Bureau of American Republics in June, 1909.

3. *Letter Home* from Santiago (Curtis's "Between the Andes and the Ocean" and "Capitals of Spanish America;" Pepper; Hale's "Guide;" Ruhl's "The Other Americans;" Wrights "Republic of Chile.")
4. *Description* of our fleet in Chilean harbors (see *Review of Reviews*, May, 1908).
5. *Roll Call*. "What has interested me most in the study of Chile?"
6. *Reading* "Chile in 1910" in *Pan-American Bulletin* for August, 1911.



REVIEW QUESTIONS ON APRIL READINGS

AS WE SEE OURSELVES. VII. JOURNALISM AND HUMOR.

1. What would be the impression of a visitor from Mars concerning our newspapers? 2. What is the right way of interpreting the newspaper picture of American life? 3. How numerous are the periodicals of the United States? 4. Who first developed news-gathering and how has it been extended? 5. What development was due to Horace Greeley? 6. To Charles Dana? 7. For what aspects of journalism are Pulitzer and Hearst responsible? 8. Under what three heads does the contents of newspapers fall? 9. Discuss news matter. 10. Who is responsible for the quality of the journal? 11. What should be the atmosphere of the editorial section? 12. Who are the foremost editorial writers of today? 13. How do the salaries of editorial writers compare with those of other members of the staff? 14. How does a newspaper make its income? 15. What does the advertiser pay for? 16. Cite the *New York Times* as a special instance. 17. Give examples of the advertisers' power over the rest of the paper. 18. Study the advertising. 19. Compare the quality of the news and editorial columns. 20. How may the newspaper share in public service? 21. What are some of the other considerations that affect the attitude of a newspaper? 22. Follow the comparison of the *New York Times* with three European papers: a) in space given to news, editorials, advertising; b) in space devoted to different kinds of news. 23. Compare the number of newspapers published in the four countries. 24. How are the weeklies and monthlies more independent than the dailies? 25. How did the *Outlook* treat the sugar investigation? 26. How do the editorials compare? 27. What has been the growth of the monthly magazines? 28. What are the four currents of their influence? 29. Describe the fact story. 30. Is this feature peculiar to the United States? 31. Sum up the "quality" of the magazines. 32. How extensive is American humor? 33. Who are some of the best known newspapers humorists of today? 34. What paradox is proved by our humorists? 35. What are some of the characteristics of American humor?

A READING JOURNEY THROUGH SOUTH AMERICA. CHAPTER VII. CHILE.

1. To what was the name Chile given originally? 2. What did the first governor call the country? 3. How was the name 'Chile' confirmed? 4. Describe the strange topography of Chile. 5. Describe the double mountain formation. 6. Compare the height of the Andean volcanoes with that of Etna and Vesuvius. 7. What

historical event occurred in these mountains? 8. What is the importance of the Uspallata tunnel? 9. What impression is left by Sir Martin Conway's description? 10. What is the coloring of these mountains? 11. What is the aspect as the altitude of the mountains decreases? 12. What is the nature of the islands from Chiloe down? 13. Compare the Chilean and Norwegian fjords. 14. What is the Chilean vegetation? 15. What is the general tone of the southernmost point of the continent? 16. What contrasts did Sir Martin Conway observe in his visit to Sarmiento? 17. Contrast Chile's zones. 18. Speak of Chile's struggle with Bolivia. 19. What are the activities of Antofagasta? 20. How is the trip made from Antofagasta to Valparaiso? 21. What peculiarities of Valparaiso are due to its enforced shape? 22. What is the population? 23. What is the general appearance of Santiago? 24. What is El Cerro de Santa Lucia like? 25. What is Santiago's hall of fame? 26. What are some of the other attractions of the city? 27. Compare Santiago and Valparaiso.

AMERICAN ENGINEERING. CHAPTER VII. SANITARY ENGINEERING.

1. What is the modern attitude toward health? 2. Cite Birmingham. 3. What is the engineer's part in bringing about public good health? 4. Define sanitary engineering. 5. Under what three heads does it fall? 6. Why are people careless about ventilation? 7. What was the former notion about carbon dioxide? 8. What is thought now to be the cause of discomfort from lack of ventilation? 9. Explain the behavior of perspiration. 10. In what does adequate ventilation consist? 11. What advantage is shown on the practical sides? 12. Quote the illustrations. 13. What is the simplest method of ventilation? 14. How is that improved upon? 15. What is "conditioned" air? 16. How is it done by water sprays? 17. To what extent is it cooled? 18. What is meant by a large water consumption? 19. Compare the amount per capita in the cities mentioned. 20. How is the amount of sewage to be disposed of calculated? 21. What is the estimated amount of water used per capita in towns and cities? 22. What is the action of the prudent engineer? 23. What is said of the disposal of storm water? 24. What are other features to be considered in designing sewers? 25. What difficulty confronts the engineer of the inland city? 26. Describe the sewage disposal system of Baltimore.



SEARCH QUESTIONS ON APRIL READINGS

1. What valuable expedition was financed by James Gordon Bennett? 2. Name five plays written by George Ade.

1. Who is Sir Martin Conway?

1. Who was John Quincy Adams? 2. What is the chemical symbol for carbon dioxide?



ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON MARCH READINGS

1. Columbia University. 2. Clergyman. 3. "Life." 4. The Roman Church. 5. Harvard. 6. "Atlantic Monthly."

1. A pattern.

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "TWENTY YEARS AT HULL-HOUSE"

Chapter I. 1. Why are the early impressions that are recorded all connected with the writer's father? 2. What childhood decision about the "horrid little houses" bore fruit in after years? 3. What example is given of an early sense of responsibility? 4. Give instances of unusual expressions of daughterly affection. 5. What emphasis was laid on mental integrity? 6. What is the attitude of the child toward nature? 7. Toward death? 8. What "valuable possession" came from thought about Mazzini's death?

Chapter II. 1. What are some of the recollections connected with the Civil War? 2. What was symbolized in the journey to Old Abe? 3. What influence did the memory of Mr. Lincoln exert? 4. What tribute to Mr. Addams was recalled by his daughter in connection with the sweat shop bill? 5. What especial character emphasizes the admiration of Lincoln by his contemporaries? 6. How was Lincoln's power of utilizing past experiences used as a lesson at Hull-House? 7. Speak of vision and wisdom and high purpose as motivating labor for human equality. 8. What aspect of democratic government was made clear by Lincoln?

Chapter III. 1. What was the "atmosphere" at Rockford Seminary? 2. What were some of the school girl experiences? 3. What effort was made to advance Rockford Seminary? 4. What power useful in Hull-House experiences was gained by school experiences in withstanding pressure? 5. What was the school girl receipt for justice? 6. What enthusiasm for science had arisen?

Chapter IV. 1. What was the East London experience? 2. What conviction did Miss Addams reach about the first generation of college women? 3. What was the revulsion of feeling against cultural pursuits when disconnected from the conduct test? 4. What part did enthusiasm for democracy play in bringing about church membership? 5. What instances of misery in this country and in Europe added to mental wretchedness? 6. What impression was conveyed by the cathedral at Ulm. 7. What contrast is brought out in the account of the lectures on the catacombs? 8. What was the early idea of the Settlement? 9. What illumination was shed by the bull-fight? 10. What does Tolstoy mean by "the snare of preparation?"

Chapter V. 1. Who was Miss Addams's companion in the opening of Hull-House? 2. What was the theory of reciprocity with which Hull-House was opened? 3. How was the house discovered? 4. What belief was lived up to in the furnishing of the house? 5. Describe Halsted Street. 6. Recall some of the early visitors and experiences. 7. What has been the importance of the development of hand crafts? 8. What is the Settlement's attitude toward old people? 9. In what way is Settlement life "natural?"

Chapter VI. 1. What has been the attitude of the best known of the early Settlement workers toward the Settlement? 2. Summarize the paper on "The Subjective Necessity for Social Settlements" under the three heads mentioned on page 125.

Chapter VII. 1. What was the history of the Hull-House coffee-house? 2. What was the teaching drawn from the coffee-

house experience? 3. What was at the basis of the experiments in co-operation? 4. What circumstance attended the housing of the Jane Club? 5. What were some of the co-operative enterprises of the early nineties? 6. What has been the progress of co-operation? 7. What were some of the experiences that affected judgments of what is called crime and vice? 8. Why does the first building erected for Hull-House have especial interest? 9. What theory of universal good will was developed in connection with the Settlement idea? 10. Why were residents drawn to Hull-House?

Chapter VIII. 1. What were some of the cases of old age brought to the attention of the Settlement? 2. What were some of the experiences of the winter following the World's Fair? 3. What was the lesson learned from the case of the young man who worked on the canal? 4. What were some of the neighborhood activities of Hull-House? 5. Who were some of the neighbors?

Chapter IX. 1. What was the spirit of the period between 1890 and 1900? 2. What was the reason for starting "The Working People's Social Science Club?" 3. What was the tenor of the social discussion? 4. What was the influence of the World's Fair? 5. What was Miss Addams's defense of free speech? 6. What is the untechnical definition of socialism? 7. By what means were some of the economic discussions carried through? 8. Place trade-unionists according to Mill's classification. 9. Connect the church of that period with the labor movement. 10. How may the decade be characterized? 11. What is the attitude of the Settlement toward social unrest and spiritual impulse?

Chapter X. 1. What instances called the attention of the Hull-House residents to the evils of child labor? 2. What was the result of the investigations of the committee of the Illinois legislature appointed to look into Chicago conditions? 3. What aid was lent by the General Federation of Women's Clubs? 4. What was the course of the eight-hour law? 5. What is understood by mature legislation? 6. Why was labor legislation in Illinois fifteen years ago contrary to the traditions of the state? 7. What is said of factory legislation? 8. Of trades-unions and sweating? 9. Of the Consumers' League? 10. Of organizations of women workers? 11. Give instances to show that the labor movement is appreciated as a social movement and not a class struggle. 12. Discuss the Pullman strike. 13. Speak of unemployment and employment bureaus. 14. What is the effect of a strike on public attention and opinion? 15. What is the ground for the Settlement's interest in labor struggles? 16. Give the standard of life argument leading to approval of State regulation.

Chapter XI. 1. What were some of the activities of Hull-House among the Italians? 2. What was Professor Masurek's feeling about his countrymen in America? 3. What object lay back of the establishment of the Hull-House Labor Museum? 4. What facts of industrial progress have been brought out by the exhibits? 5. What subtler benefits have resulted? 6. What was the tribute of the president of the club of necktie workers? 7. What value may lie in the instinct of workmanship? 8. What are some of the family tragedies from the point of view of the children? 9. What connection with American life may be brought about

for immigrant parents by children? 10. Speak of the relations of immigrants of different nationalities to each other.

Chapter XII. 1. What was the thought about living among the poor which resulted in the visit to Tolstoy? 2. What were some of the experiences in England? 3. Describe the visit to Tolstoy. 4. What is the divergence of democratic theory from actual fact? 5. In what respect was the experience of Hull-House at difference with Tolstoy's theory of non-resistance? 6. What questionings were aroused by the conversation with Tolstoy? 7. Describe the colony at Commonwealth.

Chapter XIII. 1. Describe the struggle with the garbage question and the work as inspector. 2. What were some of the housing conditions in the neighborhood? 3. Speak of public spirit and political machinery. 4. Of investigations into evils. 5. What has been the experience of Hull-House in co-operating with organizations already in existence? 6. Illustrate the passage of the Settlement from the concrete to the abstract. 7. What has become the attitude of the American Settlements toward organized charity?

Chapter XIV. 1. Give some of the instances in which Hull-House has co-operated with existing civic institutions. 2. Speak of Hull-House and the alderman. 3. How does a Settlement fulfil its most valuable function? 4. Illustrate by some of the experiences of Hull-House. 5. Speak of the Juvenile Protective Association. 6. What was the struggle of the Teachers' Federation? 7. Speak of public school administration and politics. 8. Speak of the newspaper attitude. 9. Of the effort in Chicago to secure the municipal franchise for women.

Chapter XV. 1. What was the early strength of social clubs at Hull-House? 2. Speak of the adaptability of the city child. 3. Of the standardizing of the pleasure clubs. 4. Of youth's demands. 5. Quote Walt Whitman. 6. Illustrate recognition of the concrete duty as a part of the social duty. 7. Distinguish between the cultivated and the uncultivated person. 8. What was some of the work of the social extension committee? 9. How does the amusement or self-improvement club broaden with a growing sense of social obligation? 10. What did Sir Walter Besant say about Hull-House?

Chapter XVI. 1. What has been the attitude of Hull-House toward art? 2. What have been some of the activities in painting and the crafts? 3. In music? 4. In the drama? 5. How was the "Troll's Holiday" produced?

Chapter XVII. 1. How has Hull-House come into touch with the Russian Revolution? 2. Speak of Prince Kropotkin. 3. Of the excitement in Chicago over the assassination of McKinley. 4. What is the present status of anarchy in America? 5. What gives the clearest lessons in citizenship? 6. What should be the attitude of a democratic government toward extradition for political offences? 7. Recall the argument with Gershuni; 8. the Gorki incident.

Chapter XVIII. 1. Why was education at Hull-House placed on a social basis? 2. What were some of the educational activities? 3. What opportunities are open for lecturers? 4. What has always been the noblest object of art? 5. Toward what end should the educative efforts of a Settlement be directed? 6. What have been some of the Hull-House efforts to give immediately

available education? 7. Why was the ban against military drill lifted? 8. What were the Columbian Guards? 9. What has been the educational reaction upon the Hull-House residents? 10. Why is diversity of creed among the residents desirable? 11. Say something of the personnel of the residents. 12. What is the Settlement's attitude toward the things that are "reasonable and goodly?"

BIBLIOGRAPHY

English Social Movements, Robert A. Woods, \$1.20 net; *Labor Problems*, Adams and Sumner, \$1.60; *Races and Immigrants in America*, John R. Commons, \$1.50; *Social Ideals in English Letters*, Vida D. Scudder, \$1.75; *Towards Social Reform*, S. A. and C. Barnett, \$1.50; *The Spirit of Youth and the City Streets*, Jane Addams, \$1.25. The above books may be obtained at the prices quoted from the Chautauqua Book Store, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Talk About Books

THE LAND OF LIVING MEN. By Ralph Waldo Trine. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company. \$1.25.

The philosophy of practical living has been explained by Ralph Waldo Trine in several uplifting volumes since "In Tune with the Infinite," now in its one hundred thirteenth thousand, went to the hearts and understandings of earnest people. Now Mr. Trine has reverted to the interest in political and social science which sent him, a graduate student, to Johns Hopkins, and has written in "The Land of Living Men," a book calculated to make folk realize that it is not only their duty to acquaint themselves with civic and community affairs, but that it is greatly to their advantage to do so. The author has pointed to present conditions, has explained their causes, and has suggested methods by which abuses may be done away with and desirable conditions produced. Government is for the people, he says, and the people should bestir themselves and not let the work and the profits fall to a few. Housing, industrial accidents, the "white plague," poverty, prevention of all sorts, playgrounds, graft, public utilities, labor problems—all these and other topics with which the social worker is struggling today are developed by Mr. Trine before ways of cure are opened in a series of illuminating chapters on direct legislation, on increase of intelligence and religious feeling and patriotism, and on the securing of peace. Because the quality of national character is dependent on the quality of individual character it is imperative that the individual be uplifted if the nation would grow. The Golden Rule is the law to be followed and followed with understanding. Obedience to it means character development of the patriot and of his country.

THE SIEGE OF BOSTON. Allen French. New York: The Macmillan Company. 1911. \$1.50 net.

"The Siege of Boston" by Allen French is fascinating, giving a vivid account of the events leading up to the American Revolution and of that part which centered around Boston. The author describes the temperament of the Crown, the local governors, and the New Englanders, and tells the story of the annoying Writ of Assistance, the Stamp Act, and the Massacre of March 5, 1770. The familiar "Tea-Party" episode, its resulting new laws and new governor with his four regiments of the "King's Own," the increasing friction between Whig and Tory and soldiers, the town meetings, apparently law-abiding but at heart gatherings of sane, fair-minded patriots who understood the trend of events and who were planning to cope with the outcome, give the reader a sympathetic picture of the threatening aspect of affairs which led to the serious preparations for resistance to the King. While these preparations were simple and unorganized, yet the courage and spirit displayed by the Yankees in skirmishes culminating in the Battle of Bunker Hill astonished the English and showed them the true mettle with which they had to deal. The need of a properly organized army was now keenly realized and the Second Continental Congress chose as organizer and leader Col. George Washington, already recognized for his ability in the French and Indian War. That Washington proved splendidly efficient everyone knows, but perhaps some have forgotten the difficulties and seemingly insurmountable obstacles he overcame and the patient and skilful handling of his men and meager supplies which resulted in his ridding Boston of the British in 1776. To these matters the last five chapters of the book are devoted.

Mr. French's style is pleasant and makes the reader feel intimately acquainted with the historic old town, its environments, and its famous personnel. There are many familiar historical illustrations and the Old State House is utilized as frontispiece and cover feature.

THE OPENING UP OF AFRICA. By Sir H. H. Johnston. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents net.

By his varied diplomatic service in Africa, Sir H. H. Johnston is amply fitted to discuss the history of the land of his adoption. In previous volumes he has dealt with special questions; in "The Opening Up of Africa" he covers the general history of the continent from pre-historic times through the "classic" days of Egypt and Greece and Rome to the modern developments by the European countries who have used it and abused it. The names connected with Africa in honor or in shame—Livingston, Rhodes, Grenfell, King Leopold among them—are truthfully presented. Questions of commerce are intelligently answered.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS. John Franklin Brown, Ph. D. The Macmillan Co., New York. \$1.25 net.

"The Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools" by John Franklin Brown is the direct fruit of the author's experience as exchange teacher of English at Halle. This position gave him exceptional opportunity to study the German school system.

Mr. Brown begins his work with an account of the Prussian school system in order to show the development of the German methods and institutions for the training of teachers. In Part I. he discusses the divisions of the Prussian schools into elementary and higher schools, and the further subdividing of the same groups. Next he considers the certification of teachers in the higher schools from 1810 to the present time, tracing the successive changes in regulations which show increasing tendency toward explicit professional training. There is a valuable chapter about organization of the pedagogical institutions and their regulations, the time required for the study of theory and the practice teaching varying from one to two years. Of interest to the American teacher, but especially to teachers in the City of New York, is the chapter on the professional, financial, and social standing of teachers in general, and of the teachers of higher schools in particular. Part I. closes with a chapter on the "Impressions of the German System."

The subject of Part II. is "The Training of American Teachers." This includes a consideration of the "Certification of American Teachers," together with the sphere of American secondary schools, and the need of higher standards in the preparation and selection of teachers in this country. In this chapter the author carefully presents the requirements of the leading states of the Union for the certification of high school teachers. California seems to have the highest standard. No two states have exactly the same standards. This chapter is not only interesting, but enlightening. The subject of "Institutions for the Training of Secondary Teachers," such as the Normal School, the University, and the Special schools of Pedagogy, all receive their due share of attention. Of great interest is the brief but meaty chapter on the "Responsibility" for standards and training. It must, perforce, be divided among the state, the individual, the universities, and the local authorities. Treatment of the desired standard and the means of securing it follows in the next two chapters. A brief summary closes the book proper.

An appendix sets forth very concisely the standards in several other countries besides Germany and America. Last of all is an attractive bibliography.

Even one with long experience in secondary work may read this book with interest, perhaps just because of this experience, and lay the book aside with the feeling that comes from a broader outlook and from time well spent.

SELECT ORATIONS. Edited by Archibald McClelland Hall. New York: The Macmillan Company. Price 25c net.

Prefaced by an introduction which presents some of the principles of argumentation in the form of a model outline, and which gives admirable advice on the mechanics of delivery, Dr. Archibald McClelland Hall's group of famous orations is a useful collection for all who are addicted to speech-making. The arrangement of the selections is new for such a volume, the extracts being representative of Greece, Rome, France, England, and America, with examples from Hebrew and Early Church thought. The quotations from American oratory are varied and also illustrative of critical moments in our history.

The book is one of the convenient volumes of the Pocket Classics series.

A MODERN DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$60 net.

The "Modern Dictionary" is a reliable and up-to-date little volume, valuable on account of its convenient size, its clear type and its great number of modern words and phrases, such as those used in connection with aviation. The spelling, definition, and pronunciation of words are according to the best authorities. Attention is called to common errors of spelling, pronunciation, and grammar. The arrangement is excellent, prefixes, abbreviations, foreign words and phrases, and proper names appearing in the body of the dictionary in their proper alphabetical order.

THE STOCK EXCHANGE. By Francis W. Hirst. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents net.

This account of The Stock Exchange by the editor of "The Economist" (London), is another of the readable volumes of the Home University Library. Its historic touch upon the activities of the New York, London and Continental Exchanges is interesting, its definitions are useful, its advice as to securities, investment and speculation is sane.

LIBERALISM. By L. T. Hobhouse. New York: Henry Holt & Co. London: Williams & Norgate. 75 cents net.

The place in modern theory and modern life of the liberalism which places social responsibility while it endows with liberty is the study which L. T. Hobhouse, Professor of Sociology in London University, places before his readers in "Liberalism." The elements of liberalism are defined, its history is sketched, and its future prophesied in a series of chapters meritorious in their condensed and popular handling of a vital theme.

THE TUDOR SHAKESPEARE. ROMEO AND JULIET. Edited by W. A. Neilson, Ph. D., and A. H. Thorndike, Ph. D., L. H. D. New York: The Macmillan Company. 35 cents net.

"Romeo and Juliet," edited by Prof. Neilson and Prof. Thorndike, is the initial volume in a new edition of Shakespeare. The text is the "Neilson Text" based on the second Quarto, and copyrighted by Prof. Neilson in 1906. It is the result of scholarly research aided by scholars of note. In addition to a carefully prepared text, are a few well chosen notes and variant readings followed by a valuable glossary. The volume is attractive in style as well as in matter and is a masterly tribute to our foremost dramatist.

PSYCHOLOGY, NORMAL AND ABNORMAL. By Warren E. Lloyd and Annie Elizabeth Cheney. New York: Roger Brothers. \$1.00. Basing their discussion of "Psychology, Normal and Abnormal," upon the hypothesis that mind and matter are opposite poles of the same thing, Warren E. Lloyd and Annie Elizabeth Cheney have written chapters on consciousness—always *self-consciousness*—through which the nature and characteristics of mind appear; on desire and its influence over the energy that brings accomplishment to pass; on action and reaction between the mental and the physical; on the relations of energy to emotion and its qualities of pleasure and pain; on imagery and its specializations, memory and imagination; on intuition and understanding; on periodicity; and on poise. The exposition is dispassionate, well-balanced, well-arranged. The concluding chapter (on Poise) states an enlargement of the basic hypothesis, namely, "We postulate immortal Units of Force, each having the power to generate a constant but limited amount of energy, and no two alike in quantity."

The presentation is clear and is delivered with conviction.

THE SPELL OF HOLLAND. By Burton E. Stevenson. Boston: L. C. Page & Company. \$2.50.

To write description that describes and at the same time chatters along like a story is not the gift of everyone who "takes his pen in hand" and Mr. Stevenson is to be complimented on achieving this delightful combination. His experiences and Betty's were not out of the ordinary and it is their very usualness that makes them eagerly read by the everyday traveller who has had others just like them. The illustrations from photographs taken by the author—and Betty—are ample in number and in range. CHAUTAUQUAN readers of George Wharton Edwards' "Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land" in 1908 will be especially glad to refresh their memories with this new book.

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THE MAGAZINE OF SYSTEM IN READING

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Jane Addams

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THE CHAUTAUQUAN

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APRIL, 1912

No. 2.



Progressive "Labor" Decision

Senator Root of New York, and others who deplore impatience with and attacks on the courts for their alleged conservatism in interpreting constitutions admit that judges are bound to consider not only the language and intent of framers of constitutions and statutes, but also the facts and conditions of the time in which they live. Forms and terms change, in other words, with changes in the realities of life.

How certain state courts have dealt with modern laws in the light of the 18th century constitutions has been illustrated heretofore in these pages. But the Supreme Court of the United States has recently rendered a decision in a number of cases (which arose under the amended national employers' liability act) that many consider to be even more striking than any of the state decisions. Congress has extended the liability of railroads and other common carriers for injuries and accidents suffered by their employes; it has done away with antiquated common law defences like assumption of risk, contributory negligence and fellow-servant negligence. The Supreme Court unanimously sustained the congressional act in all its features, radical as some deemed it to be.

The questions involved were thus stated by the court:

1. May Congress, in the exertion of its power over interstate commerce, regulate the relations of common carriers by railroad and their employes while both are engaged in such commerce?
2. Has Congress exceeded its power in that regard by prescribing the regulations which are embodied in the act in question?
3. Do

those regulations supersede the laws of the States in so far as the latter cover the same field? 4. May rights arising under those regulations be enforced, as of right, in the courts of the States when their jurisdiction, as fixed by local laws, is adequate to the occasion?

The whole decision was broad and modern. The court held that no one had a vested right in the common law; that doctrines and defences that are valid at one time may be invalid at another time; that such phrases as "due process of law" and "equal protection of the laws" do not preclude legal changes dictated by justice, equity and industrial needs; and that national laws are supreme in the sphere of federal jurisdiction and cannot be ignored by state courts because of conflicting state laws. The policy laid down by the nation is the policy of each state, except where the state is free to make its own exclusive laws.

In the matter of liberalizing and extending employers' liability laws the courts, with one notable exception, have "marched with the age" and displayed sympathy with the new conceptions regarding industrial safety and compensation for industrial accidents. It is believed that even compulsory compensation laws will before long be generally sustained under existing constitutions, in spite of a New York decision declaring compulsory compensation for accidents, even in hazardous industries, to constitute illegal taking of employers' property for the benefit of employ  s.



"Minimum Wage" Movement

Legislation providing for the fixing of minimum wages for certain industries, in which the sweating system prevails, or which are regarded as parasitic, is familiar in England and Australia. The object of such legislation is, first, to insure a living rate of pay for labor, especially of women and girls, and thus prevent pauperism and degradation, and, in the second place, to protect decent, conscientious employers against the competition of unscrupulous or inefficient sweaters and exploiters. The minimum amount of interference with contract and industrial freedom is involved in

such legislation, as far as it has actually gone; but the principle, it is plain, is far-reaching.

In this country the question of minimum wages is very new. In Massachusetts a commission has investigated the subject and submitted a very significant report to the legislature. The inquiry was thorough, and the report is moderate, but the commissioners unanimously favor a cautious measure providing, under various safeguards, for the fixing of women's minimum wages. A wage board is suggested, such board to have power of investigation, suggestion and action. There is only a slight element of compulsion and state interference in the proposed plan, but the element is there. The board is to have the power to fix wages where, and, if necessary, under legislative sanction.

This would be a new and radical departure in the United States. Yet many economists, periodicals and newspapers have indorsed the proposal and advocated it. Some women's clubs have taken up the matter and intend to push it as "the next step" in industrial and social reform. To regulate women's hours of labor, they say, is not a whit more important than to see to it that women's pay is not forced down below a certain level. Too low a level, it is painfully evident, spells not only wretched physical existence, with disease and misery, but moral danger. The terrible social evil is largely caused by insufficient pay and constant temptation of weak, ignorant, bewildered girls, whose lives are hard, dull, cheerless and hopeless, by vicious men who offer them pleasure and change and "comfort."

The Massachusetts legislature will be the first in the United States to fight this question out. Should it enact a statute creating a wages board and enabling it to fix minimum wages for any industry, the constitutionality of such legislation must be tested in the courts. There are those who think that the courts will be slow in sustaining such legislation, and that much preliminary agitation and discussion, with, perhaps constitutional amendments, will be found necessary. However this may be, the fact that more

than one state and influential organization of women are taking up the question in a practical and earnest spirit, is a phenomenon worthy of general attention.



Two Important Investigations

In England "a royal commission to investigate" means delay and avoidance: in this country a commission or investigation too often means "politics" and reports which no one really studies. Nevertheless important questions demand investigation and such investigations can best be carried on under official auspices, though not by officials alone.

Two inquiries have been recommended to Congress by the President, and favorable action is generally expected. One is to deal with the cost of living, or the phenomena of rising prices, the world over, and is to be international. A conference of leading economists, financiers, statisticians, captains of industry and labor leaders is to be called and a searching investigation undertaken. The inquiry should separate local and accidental causes of high prices from those which operate everywhere and have deep roots in modern conditions of production, distribution, credit, banking and consumption.

It is apparent to common sense that excessive protection, oppressive monopoly, public waste and graft, private extravagance, poor organization of retail trade, are among the causes of high prices. But there are economists who believe the most potent and principal cause to be the overproduction of gold, the universal standard of values and the theoretical medium of all civilized exchanges. To say that gold is abundant and cheap is to say that commodities are dear, or that gold will not buy much of the necessities and comforts of life. But cheap gold should stimulate production and commerce, should increase the demand for labor, should raise wages, and increase prosperity. No such effects are seen, and for this reason other authorities ridicule the "too much gold" theory. It is desirable to have a

really scientific verdict on the subject, and such a verdict might lead to currency reform and the discovery of a better standard than gold.

The second great inquiry referred to has to do with industrial relations and the so-called labor question. We have discussed the petition for such an inquiry which a remarkable group of thinkers and social workers presented to the President in December. The petition was earnestly seconded in the press, and the President found himself in sympathy with its proposal. A mixed commission, such as he proposed, should be able to elicit valuable suggestions and point out remedial measures of various kinds. We have too many strikes, too many bitter disputes, too much waste, too much talk of "class war" in industry. Better machinery for the prevention or adjustment of trouble over wages, hours, unions, conditions of labor, accidents and injuries is a generally recognized need. Democracy in politics implies democracy in many other things. Autocracy or feudalism in industrial relations has become impossible. Has the time come for general profit-sharing, for co-operation, for more control over industry by labor? What can the law do for industrial peace, and what must be left to public sentiment, to voluntary action, to self-interest? Such questions as these should be considered and answered by an enlightened and authoritative commission. The answer would command national attention.



New Phases of the Tariff Question

It is more than probable that a referendum on a protective tariff versus revenue duties absolutely without regard to protection would even now, in spite of so much dissatisfaction with the Aldrich-Payne tariff, and the demand for downward revision, result in a decisive, if not overwhelming, vindication of the protective system. Even radical free traders admit that the farmers and the workmen are protectionists, and that, therefore, in revising tariffs conservation is the first duty of responsible statesmen.

Yet in a vital sense the tariff is now a major political issue. The leading Democratic candidates are emphasizing this fact and declaring that the abuses of protection—high duties, confused and perplexing schedules, etc.—are responsible for most of our monopolistic trusts and the dangerous concentration of wealth. Strikes and the unrest of labor generally are likewise attributed to overprotection and special privilege. How to eradicate abuses without touching the protective system itself or alarming business and industry is assuredly a most difficult problem. We shall hear much about this problem in the presidential campaign.

We shall also hear something concerning a new phase of the protection issue, the phase known in Australian states as "the new protection." The "new protection" is the protection which makes high wages, or the sharing of the benefits of high duties, a condition of its enjoyment by manufacturers and employers. Ordinarily, the legislature assumes that the benefits of protection will go in part to labor. That is, the theory is that natural factors, trade unions, the fear of strikes, actual strikes, and so on, combine to secure for labor the proper share of the benefit conferred on capital and enterprise by the protective system. Unfortunately, this theory is not always supported by practice. In some highly protected industries wages are low, conditions of labor hard, hours long, and strikes frequent. The "new protection" is an attempt to do away with such anomalies.

In this country severe attacks have lately been made on the iron and steel industry, as well as on the textile industry, from this point of view. These industries, it is charged in official reports and private articles, largely employ foreign workers, pay very low wages to such workers, and render it impossible for them to maintain American standards of living. Yet protection is itself maintained in the interest of the American standards. In a public speech Mr. Louis D. Brandeis, the eminent Boston lawyer and

reformer, said this about the employés of the Steel Corporation:

The associated charities of Pittsburgh recently determined by actual investigation what it costs for a family consisting of husband, wife and three children, not to live, but barely to subsist. If the common laborers in the steel industry were to work twelve hours a day for 365 days a year they would be unable to earn even that minimum amount; they would fall just \$1.50 short of that bare subsistence wage. Of course, it is physically impossible for any man to work twelve hours a day for 365 days. Moreover, there are only two holidays in the steel industry—Christmas and the Fourth of July—and in the shriveling heat of blast furnaces even those holidays are denied. Think of that situation side by side with the enormous profits taken from the American people to be distributed among stockholders of the steel trust.

It is but fair to state that the Steel Corporation has denied some of these charges and assured the public that Sunday labor was being restricted and the twelve-hour day permitted only with the free consent of the workmen whose actual tasks did not require more than a few hours a day. These very denials and explanations tend to prove that "the new protection" is gaining ground. Employers who demand high duties are expected to prove that their workmen share in these duties.

In the Massachusetts textile industry statistics show that thousands of women earn less than \$5.00 a week. The bitter strike at Lawrence was caused by a wage reduction which followed a statute shortening the hours of labor. The reduction was resented by the employés, who were mostly aliens. The industry is highly protected, yet we have in it foreign employés and low wage standards. Where, many asked, were the benefits of protection to American labor in such a case? This question, and the spirit in which it is put even by upholders of the protective policy, are now in our politics.



Referendum on the Trust Problem

The National Civic Federation submitted to thousands of manufacturers, merchants, professional men and editors a series of questions concerning the trust law, the trust problem and its proper solution. It received about 16,000

answers, and it cannot be doubted that the results of this "referendum" fairly reflect public sentiment at the present time. They justify the statement that has been made in these pages—namely, that a consensus of opinion on the trust question has been gradually developing and that the next steps or measures are indicated by the facts and may almost be forecast.

The replies, according to the Federation's summary, establish several things. There is no sentiment in favor of the repeal of the Sherman act; there is, on the other hand, no sentiment against large corporations or even combinations of corporations; there is no insistence on free and unrestricted corporate enterprise, however; adequate regulation will be accepted and sustained by the people, not excepting the business elements. The regulation generally favored and deemed reasonable is regulation under some positive, explicit law administered by an industrial commission of real authority and power. A few make the interesting suggestion that such a commission should be composed of practical men of affairs rather than of lawyers.

Eighty-four per cent of the replies criticise the Sherman act, while ninety per cent favor either federal incorporation or federal licensing of large corporations engaged in interstate commerce. Ninety per cent approve regulation of the capitalization of corporations, but few suggest regulation fixing prices or dividends. Full publicity has no opponents.

These results unquestionably demonstrate the fruitfulness of the discussion which has been carried on for years by friends of industrial freedom and fairness. There has been a radical change of opinion, and on the whole a most healthy change. Combination will not be outlawed, but it will be supervised and controlled. The control will be vested in a proper commission, and it will aim to prevent abuse rather than to end it by lawsuits. The control will be good for all, including honest and sober-minded men of affairs. There will be no "interference" except such as is

necessary to protect the public and discourage plunder, fraud and robbery. Even big business can be done honestly and morally, without graft, exploitation or brutality.



For a National Children's Bureau

What many regard as a radical piece of legislation was approved by the Senate early in February—not, however, without much conservative opposition. The reference is to the Borah bill creating a Children's Bureau in the Department of Commerce and Labor. The bureau is to be educational and scientific; it is to gather, classify, analyze and supply information. Anything relating to the welfare of children, physically or mentally, is to be within the purview of the bureau. It will, it is understood, investigate especially child labor laws, juvenile delinquency, infant mortality, infant blindness due to negligence, school hygiene, etc. States, cities, civic bodies and others will be entitled to secure information from the bureau, and the hope is that more intelligent and perhaps uniform legislation for the protection of child welfare will gradually develop as a result of accurate and timely information.

For five years social reformers have championed the principle of this bill, but while a measure similar to the Borah bill passed the House last year, the sentiment in the Senate was hostile and success was doubtful. "Are children to be put on a level with pigs?" asked one old-fashioned state-rights senator? What has the federal government to do with children? Why should national statistics be collected and disseminated regarding children? Let the states which legislate in behalf of children also gather the information they need in order to legislate, continued the objectors.

But the constitutionality of the bill was defended by some of the ablest of the conservative and moderate senators, and on the question of policy, desirability and expediency the progressives won. True, the states legislate,

except as to children of territories, possessions, etc.; but since we have a national census, a national educational bureau, and other national agencies which obtain and publish data for the use and benefit of all, why not have a children's bureau? What real objection is there to a mere source of trustworthy information located at Washington? One bureau is more economical and likely to be infinitely more efficient than twoscore or more state agencies for the same purpose. There is certain to be more and more attention to child life and labor in the future, and information will be more and more needful in order to avoid error and make known successes in legislation and administration of laws designed to conserve child welfare.



American Academy of Arts and Letters

Several months ago the objects and ideas of the National Institute of Arts and Letters, which has a membership of 250, were set forth in these pages. The Institute has voted on and selected candidates for an inner circle, a smaller body, which is to be known as the American Academy of Arts and Letters. It is hoped that Congress will incorporate the academy and thus give it a formal status, and, further, that questions regarding public art and national literature may in time be referred to it, as such matters are referred to the French Academy.

Whether Congress does this or ignores the whole scheme—and there are writers who think there is no place for an academy in an English-speaking country, and that public indifference or ridicule would kill such an institution if it took itself seriously—the academy is “an accomplished fact.” That is, we know who our “forty immortals”—or, rather, our forty-six immortals, since forty-seven have been elected by the members of the institute and death has removed one—are at this time.

The list is in some respects a surprising one. There are no women on it, in the first place, although there is no rea-

son why there should not be in a country of free and democratic institutions, in which even equal suffrage is making rapid advance these days. In the second place, there are certain singular individual omissions. Dr. Eliot, former president of Harvard, writer, philosopher and editor of classics, is not on the list. Younger men of recognized gifts and power are not included.

On the whole, the list is not impressive. There are few great names on it. There are many names that are hardly known to the general reading and art loving public. Cannot the United States, many have asked, produce a more brilliant list of poets, novelists, historians, biographers, essayists, ethical and philosophical teachers? Perhaps attempts will be made to better the showing made by the institute. However, the list as it stands is interesting and significant. It is worth reproducing here:

Theodore Roosevelt.

Woodrow Wilson.

Horace Howard Furness, Philadelphia, Shakespearean scholar.

Charles Francis Adams of South Lincoln, Mass., historical writer and author.

Henry Adams of Boston, author and formerly editor of the *North American Review*.

Henry M. Alden of New York, editor of *Harper's*, lecturer and author.

William C. Brownell of New York, author and student.

John Burroughs of West Park, New York, naturalist.

Nicholas Murray Butler of New York, president of Columbia University.

George W. Cable of Northampton, Mass., author.

Basil L. Gildersleeve of Baltimore, editor, author and philologist.

Arthur Twining Hadley, president of Yale University.

Henry James, the Isle of Wight, author and editorial writer.

Robert Underwood Johnson of New York, writer and editor, member of the editorial staff of the *Century Magazine*.

Henry Cabot Lodge of Massachusetts, author, lecturer and United States Senator.

Thomas R. Lounsbury of New Haven, author and professor at Yale.

Abbott Lawrence Lowell, president of Harvard, author and scholar.

Hamilton Wright Mabie, Summit, N. J., author and editor.

Alfred T. Mahan of New York, Rear Admiral of United States Navy, retired, author and editor.

Brander Matthews of New York, author and professor of literature at Columbia University.

John Muir of Martinez, Cal., explorer, naturalist, editor and author.

Thomas Nelson Page of Washington, author and lecturer.

Bliss Perry of Cambridge, Mass., professor of English literature at Harvard University.

James Ford Rhodes, author and former president of the American Historical Society.

James Whitcomb Riley, the Hoosier poet.

William M. Sloane of Princeton, N. J., author and editor.

F. Hopkinson Smith of New York, artist and author.

Henry van Dyke of Princeton, poet and lecturer.

Andrew Dickson White of Ithaca, N. Y., educator, diplomatist and author.

George E. Woodberry of Beverly, Mass., author and poet.

John W. Alexander of New York, painter.

Paul W. Bartlett of New York, sculptor.

Edwin H. Blashfield of New York, artist, author and lecturer on art.

George De Forest Brush of Dublin, N. H., artist.

William M. Chase of New York, artist.

Kenyon Cox of New York, painter and author.

Daniel C. French of New York, sculptor.

Thomas Hastings of New York, architect.

William Rutherford Mead of New York, architect.

Francis D. Millet of New York, artist.

John S. Sargent of New York, artist.

Abbot Thayer of Monadnock, N. H., animal painter.

Elihu Vedder of New York, painter and modeller and mural decorator.

George Whitfield Chadwick of Boston, composer.

Horatio W. Parker of New Haven, Conn., organist and composer.



Does College Education "Pay?"

Self-made men often assert that college education is of no value to those who go into business. The late Richard T. Crane of Chicago, a leading manufacturer and an unusually able man, not only entertained this view but deemed it his duty to propagate it. He objected to taxation for what is called higher education. He advocated, first, general education of the preliminary kind—"the three Rs"—and in the second place proper vocational and technical training in schools fed by or in some proper way connected with industry.

From time to time investigations are made by college men to determine the earning capacity of graduates. When very limited such inquiries yield little instruction. But a

recent inquiry into the five-year record of Yale's class of 1906 threw real light on the question. The figures obtained were published and analyzed in the Yale Alumni Weekly.

Here are the returns in brief and rough summary:

First year 131 men report average.....	\$ 740.14
Second year 151 men report average	968.80
Third year 160 men report average.....	1,286.91
Fourth year 177 men report average.....	1,522.98
Fifth year 184 men report average	1,885.31

It is pointed out that in all probability those who did not do well the first year after graduation passed over that year. If they had answered, the average would have been lower for that part of the period. It is also true that the men who fail are generally disinclined to tell their stories in figures, and that all averages are somewhat higher by reason of this omitted factor. Still, the figures are suggestive as far as they go.

The average earnings of the Yale men in the various occupations and professions are shown in another table, as follows:

OCCUPATION	1ST YR	2D YR	3D YR	4TH YR	5TH YR
Finance and Mercantile, including Advertisers, Publishers, Bank- ers, Brokers, Business Men, In- surance Agents, Manufacturers, and Real Estate Dealers	\$ 705	\$1,061	\$1,516	\$1,931	\$2,405
Educational and Religious Workers... 1,110	1,085	1,236	1,328	1,514	
Farmers, Ranchers and Foresters.... 893	1,200	1,560	1,471	1,886	
Engineers	650	942	1,352	1,287	1,702
Government Employees	850	860	1,165	1,575	2,650
Journalists	660	790	821	920	1,169
Lawyers	358	400	609	927	1,245
Musicians	750	1,100	1,450	1,700	1,350
Graduate Students	487	542	426	447	370

There is certainly no occasion for pessimism concerning the ability and efficiency of college men, if these figures are really representative. It is true that we have no parallel tables showing what men without college education in the same occupations earn in the first years of their careers. A complete study would include such information, and here and there some modification of the general conclusions might be suggested. However, as Dr. Hibben, the new head of Princeton, has pointed out, a college does not undertake to prepare boys for business or the professions. A fresh graduate may be worth only \$6.00 a week to any employer,

but that would not indict the college. The college aims to develop mental faculties, teach method and instil a love of efficiency and thoroughness. It enlarges horizons and imparts not so much knowledge as power to use knowledge and improve opportunity. The college that does this is successful and will stand any test that the most hard-headed men of affairs can apply.

But the college has no monopoly of this power. All education, all earnest study, attentive reading of good books, observation of nature and humanity, cultivation of good habits of mind and especially of system and order have the same effect. To think and study is to increase one's mental and physical efficiency as well as to elevate and ennoble one's whole nature.



More Wonders in China

The Chinese Republic is an accomplished fact. The Manchu clan has surrendered; the royal family has abdicated; the national assembly and the revolutionary leaders have made terms with the regent and the princes; the throne has not only recognized the republic but has commended it to approval and expressed hopes for its prosperity and success.

Moreover, Dr. Sun Yat Sen, the first president of the Chinese Republic proclaimed at Nanking, voluntarily surrendered his office in order that Premier Yuan Shih Kai should be elected president, recognizing that the latter was "a strong man," a man of influence and experience, and that China's position, especially in her foreign relations, urgently demanded not only patriotism and wisdom but force, training and authority. The national assembly at once elected Yuan by a unanimous vote, while praising the self-abnegation and purity of Dr. Sun. Yuan, with amusing politeness, declined and warmly recommended Dr. Sun, but even in times of revolution and danger such ceremonies, it seems, are expected of gentlemanly Chinese.

It cannot be said that everything is settled in China and that the Manchu nobles and generals have all accepted defeat and intend to resign themselves to their fate—not altogether a tragic fate, as history goes, especially in the West. Troubles and disorder may continue in the north. But the Republicans have been generous and considerate to their foes; titles, pensions, honors, offices have been freely given or promised in return for recognition of the republic and the withdrawal of military and diplomatic opposition. Both sides have worked for peace and a bloodless transformation. After all, the Chinese are not a military or fighting nation, and while they have been condemned for this by the strenuous champions of “manly virtues,” the revolution has opened western eyes to the “other side” of the question. Are such things as red and white terror, rivers of blood, pillage, destruction and industrial paralysis unavoidable features of a great change in a political and social order? The Chinese revolution, which was largely the work of students and intellectuals, answers the question in the negative. Yet the profoundest changes are likely to follow the establishment of the republic. Is the Orient about to give the Occident, so complacent and “superior” in its own eyes, a lesson in revolution making?

It must be admitted, however, that the avoidance of sanguinary warfare and cruelty is to no slight extent due to the complete and sudden collapse of the Manchu clan. It is degenerate and decadent; it found few unselfish defenders; its reign rested on bribery and graft, and when once challenged in the South, where Manchu rule was never popular, by men organized and capable of conducting a campaign and keeping foreign powers at a distance, it tottered to its fall. Even the Manchu soldiers were not loyal to the throne; it represented nothing to them except broken promises, inefficiency and misrule. Had the cause of royalty been stronger, in a moral sense, it might have enlisted more resolute, stubborn and powerful difficulties. In that case the

Chinese revolution might have been as destructive as the western variety.

If China has really been as democratic and free at heart as some scholars and interpreters assert, then the revolution has simply meant the throwing off of a parasitic growth, a mere incubus, which has hampered progress in justice, law and administration without serving any useful national purpose. Then, again, the Chinese Republic should prosper and reunite the South and the North, the empire and its dependencies and allied provinces. And to the West it should bring not a "yellow peril," but guaranties and blessings.



Note

MRS. ALICE G. LIMERICK

Mrs. Alice G. Limerick died at her home in Winfield, Kansas, January 21, 1912. Mrs. Limerick was the widow of A. H. Limerick who was for years the secretary of the Winfield Assembly. Both Mr. and Mrs. Limerick were C. L. S. C. graduates and gave to this cause many years of ardent and efficient service. Mrs. Limerick has done C. L. S. C. department work in many assemblies, in Kansas, in Winfield, Wathena, and Lincoln Park; in Illinois, at Pontiac and Rockford, and in New Mexico at Mountainaire. At the latter place Mrs. Limerick built up the department and was again invited to return.

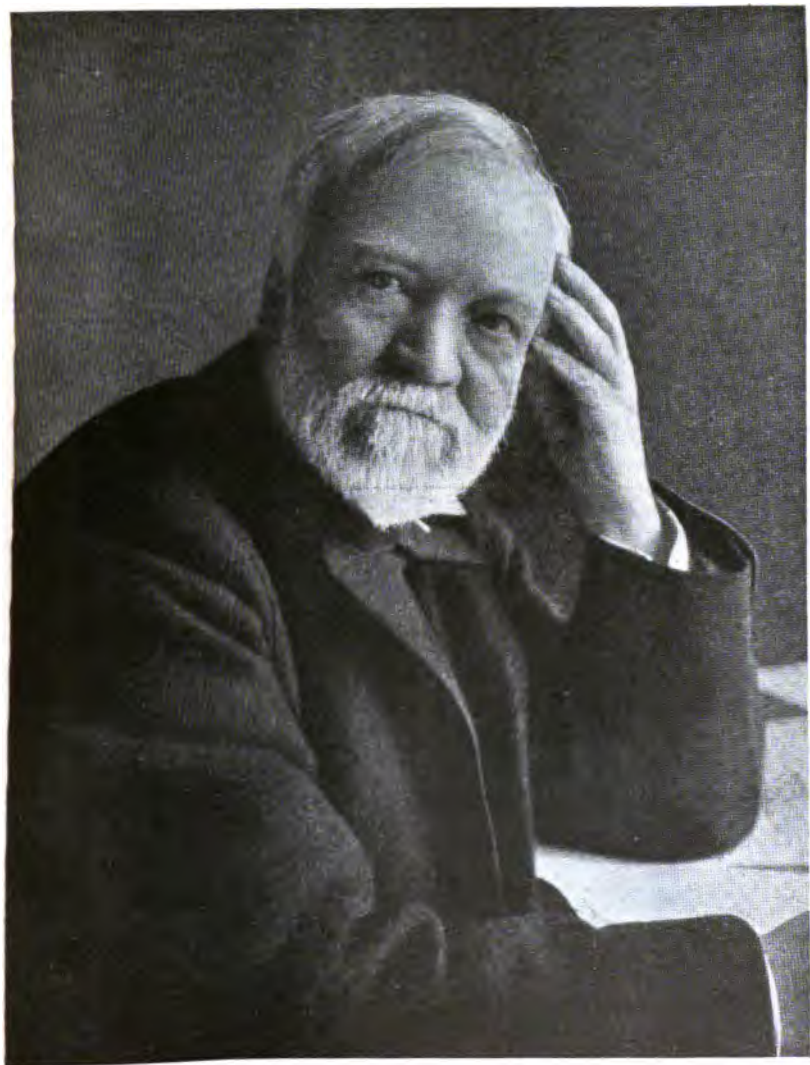
A simple and beautiful funeral service was held at the home on January 23. Among the many handsome floral offerings was a wreath bearing the letters C. L. S. C., from the three Chautauqua Circles of the town.



Richard T. Ely



John Mitchell



Andrew Carnegie



Booker T. Washington



Edward T. Devine



VIII. Economics and Sociology*

B. A. Heydrick, A.M.

IN PRECEDING papers we have seen how novelists, poets, and dramatists have portrayed American life. Their view is frankly idealized, or at least generalized. Their people are not real people, their incidents not actual events; the whole is colored by the writer's imagination. In this paper we shall consider the chief aspects of our national life as presented by men who deal with facts. Economics and sociology sound like abstract topics for college professors; if we translate them into the problem of making a living, and the problem of getting along with other people, they come close to all of us.

The largest group of books under these heads is that dealing with various aspects of what we call the labor problem. It includes books by workingmen, employés, labor leaders, college professors, and trained investigators. On the subject of the labor union, there is substantial agreement of all these writers upon two points: the right of workmen to organize, and the undoubted benefits which have been secured through organization. John Mitchell puts the case for the union as follows:

I do not wish to assert that trade unionism is perfect, or trade unions or unionists, infallible. Trade unionism is not a panacea for all the ills of life, and neither the unions nor the unionists constantly live up to the true principles of unionism.

*See CHAUTAUQUAN for September and October, 1911, for instalments I and II on The Novel, November for III on The Short Story, December for IV on The Drama, January, 1912, for V on Poetry, February for VI on Essays, March for VII on Journalism and Humor.

Labor conflicts evoke many unwise acts from both parties to the contest, and even in time of industrial peace, workmen err as do employers. I do not deny that trade unions and trade unionists have occasionally committed grave errors, serious indiscretions, and even actual crimes. But to build upon these failings a charge against the whole trade union world, or even against "trades unionism as at present conducted" is about as wise as unpromisingly to denounce Christianity or the Christian churches "as at present conducted," for the acts of individual men professing themselves Christians. The evil that trade unionism does lies upon the surface; the good is less apparent, buried deep in the grateful hearts of millions of men, who have been aroused by it to a new life and to higher and nobler aspirations.

—*Organized Labor.*

Andrew Carnegie, who at the time he wrote the following was one of the largest employers of labor, says:

The right of the working-man to combine and to form trades-unions is no less sacred than the right of the manufacturer to enter into associations and conferences with his fellows, and it must sooner or later be conceded. Indeed, it gives one but a poor opinion of the American workman if he permits himself to be deprived of a right which his fellow in England long since conquered for himself. My experience has been that trades-unions upon the whole are beneficial both to labor and to capital.

—*The Gospel of Wealth.*

The number of organized laborers was estimated by Mitchell in 1902 as two millions; Carleton in 1909 estimates it at two and one-half millions.

The effect of the unions has been to increase wages, to improve conditions, and to break down racial and other hostilities. This point is well brought out by Professor Commons:

Before the organization of the union in the coal fields these foreigners were given over to the most bitter and often murderous feuds among the ten or fifteen nationalities and the two or three factions within each nationality. The Polish worshippers of a given saint would organize a night attack on the Polish worshippers of another saint; the Italians from one province would have a knife for the Italians of another province and so on.

Unionism comes to them as a discovery and a revelation. Suddenly to find that men of other races whom they have hated are really brothers, and that their enmity has been encouraged for the profit of the common oppressor, is the most profound awakening of which they are capable. Their resentment toward employers who have kept them apart, their devotion to their new-found brothers, are terrible and pathetic. With their emotional temperament, unionism becomes not merely a fight for wages but a religious crusade. . . . When these races finally organize, the change in their moral character must be looked upon

as the most significant of the social and industrial revolutions of our time.

—*Races and Immigrants in America.*

On the subject of strikes, the information given by these writers will come as a surprise to many. Statistics for the period 1881-1900, as reported by Adams and Sumner, give the total number of strikes ordered by organizations in that period as 14,457. Of these, 52.9 per cent succeeded entirely, 13.6 per cent succeeded in part, and only 33.5 per cent failed. In the same twenty-year period the loss of employment through strikes was less than one day per year for each adult worker in the country. Professor Carleton, considering the period from 1881 to 1905, points out that in that time there has been a rapid increase in the number of strikes, and that the number of employés and establishments affected by a strike tends to increase; that the wage rate is not as important a cause of strikes as formerly, while the demand for improved conditions or for recognition of the union is gaining, and finally, that strikes are becoming more serious affairs, both to the parties concerned and to the public.

Turning from these general considerations about the laobr movement, we find that a number of the recent books deal with particular industries, such as the packing houses, the clothing trades, mining, iron and steel making, factories, and retail selling. All our great industries have been studied by trained investigators, with the purpose not of learning the total output in tons and yards and dollars, but of the conditions under which the work is done and the effect on the workman. These books contain some surprising statements. We hear of the division of labor, and vaguely suppose it means that one man is a carpenter and another a butcher. Professor Commons tells us that in the butchers' gang at a packing house there are thirty different positions, at twenty rates of pay. One man does nothing but split the back-bone, another removes the hide at the most delicate parts, another cuts where the work is easier, and so

on to the man who pulls off the tail—nine different positions in the work of removing the hide alone. In all trades this specialization is seen, with the result that the workman grows expert at one thing, but is unfitted for anything else. The constant repetition of the same act dulls the laborer, deprives him of pleasure in his work, and often sends him to the saloon to seek relief from the monotony of his toil.

In the clothing trades, the great evil is that of the sweat shops. New York and Chicago are the centers of this industry; it is estimated that four-fifths of the clothing made in New York is made in sweat shops, and in Chicago practically all. The conditions in these shops are thus described:

The workrooms are usually small, low, unventilated and dark, and are often located at the top of a house under a low, sloping roof. Sometimes they are over stables and even more often are located on alleys and in rear tenements. . . . The bad sanitary condition of the houses, the dirt and filth of every description, and the close crowding of the rooms with an overworked, poverty-stricken population fully accounts for the prevalence among these people of consumption and other diseases. . . . Although it is exceedingly difficult to trace disease to clothing manufactured under the sweating system, owing to the number of hands through which each garment passes before it is completed, there have been some cases in which this has been done. Vermin are often discovered in sweat shop goods, and wherever they are carried disease germs may also be carried. . . . It is, moreover, an erroneous idea to suppose that sweat shop clothing is necessarily poor in quality. On the contrary, overalls and working men's garments are usually manufactured in large factories under good conditions, while some of the worst conditions are found in the custom trade and in the manufacture of beautiful and expensive garments. It was again and again stated before the Industrial Commission that no man in buying a custom-made suit of the best and most fashionable tailor could have any assurance that it was not made in a sweat shop. The same thing may be said of all classes of women's ready-made clothing.

—*Trade Unionism and Labor Problems.*

Another result of the sweat-shop system is to keep foreigners from becoming Americanized. Professor Commons says:

The contractor is an important factor in the clannishness of the immigrant nationalities. It is in part due to him that we have in large cities the Jewish districts, Polish districts, Swedish districts, etc.; with very little assimilation. The contractors establish their shops in the heart of the district where the people live, and since they can practically earn their living at home, they

have no opportunity of mingling with others or of learning from the civilization of other peoples.

—*Trade Unionism and Labor Problems.*

The labor of women has formed the subject of several important investigations. The number of women workers is stated to be nearly twenty per cent of all women over ten years of age. The census enumerates 303 different kinds of employment, and finds women in all but eight. The conditions under which they work have been studied in the city of Pittsburg. This survey included 400 establishments, including canneries, cracker factories, stogy making, garment factories, laundries, printing trades, telegraph and telephone operators, and department stores. The wages in these various occupations range from \$1.98 per week in candy factories to \$10.00 per week in millinery establishments; as a whole the greater number of employés work for less than \$6.00 per week. The investigators report that in skilled and unskilled labor alike, women's wages are only half that of men in similar positions.

Further, they report that in many occupations, the surroundings are such as to invite disease, if not to cause it. Workers in soap-powder factories and in garment factories are frequently victims of pneumonia and consumption; in laundries the long hours in the hot, steamy air, then, at night, the sudden change into the cold often causes rheumatism; the garment workers, sitting in cramped positions at the machines, develop serious internal complaints. In certain industries, too, the workers are kept at the highest pace by what is known as speeding-up. The following describes this in a cracker factory:

On the same floor, in another room, there are 200 packers. These are piece workers, folding and filling boxes of soda biscuit and other crackers at high speed. The boxes pass on a narrow travelling chain which runs parallel to a second conveyor, on which the crackers come from the floor above. The girls stationed at the conveyor gather handfuls of crackers and fill the boxes as they pass rapidly by; further down the room other girls wrap the sides and still others the ends. The pace of each worker is pitched to the highest point. I noticed especially one small girl with flushed cheeks and white lips who was folding the ends of soda cracker boxes and putting on each end a red stamp. She earned \$.01 a

dozen, and if she could make a hundred dozen a day, she would get \$.10 bonus, altogether \$1.10. Her teeth were set, and her breath came hard, like that of an overspent runner at the end of a race; yet it was only ten o'clock in the morning. Her arms moved irregularly, jerkily, as if she were spurring her nervous energy to its limit. The office boy who was standing near watching her, said casually, "She's lucky if she makes her bonus. I was in this department a while ago and I seen these girls get so tired their arms was ready to drop off at night but they wouldn't make no hundred boxes."

—*Women and the Trades.*

The cost of this exhaustion of the human machine is not borne by the factory. Speaking of the stogy industry, where the same practice prevails, the investigator says:

"No girl can keep up her pace more than six years," said the manager of one large factory to me. . . . Rose Bernstein, a slight little girl with drooping mouth and sloping shoulders, told me that in three years her output had dropped from 1,000 to 700 stogies a day and that now she is losing perceptibly. . . . Most of the girls marry at twenty or twenty-one, just as their speed breaks. Some of the cost is borne by the homes into which they go. This social waste, more serious by far than the destruction of the individual, we have not yet means of estimating. Those who know these factory workers intimately know only that in case after case the industry is taking young, undeveloped girls, lifting their speed to its highest pitch, and wearing them out. They know too, after the gap of a few years, their unfit homes and under-vitalized children.

—*Women and the Trades.*

Modern industrialism, seeking the cheapest labor, first employed women, at half wages, and then discovered something still cheaper,—children. The census reports of 1900 give the number of children at work between the ages of ten and fifteen at 1,750,000. This estimate is generally believed to be far below the truth. Some states have laws regulating child labor, which are very inadequately enforced; other states have no regulations whatever. John Spargo says:

The agent of the New York Child Labor Committee was told by the foreman of one factory that there were 300 children under fourteen years of age in that one factory! In Syracuse it was a matter of complaint, in the season of 1904, on the part of the children, that "The factories will not take you *unless you are eight years old.*" In Maryland there are absolutely no restrictions placed upon the employment of children in canneries. They may be employed at any age, by day or night, for as many hours as the employers choose, or the children can stand and keep awake. In Oxford, Md., I saw a tiny girl, seven years old, who had worked

for twelve hours in an oyster-canning factory, and I was told that such cases were common. . . . According to Mr. McKelway, one of the most competent authorities in the country, there are at the present time not less than 60,000 children under fourteen employed in the cotton mills of the Southern states. Miss Jane Addams tells of finding a child of five years working by night in a South Carolina mill; Mr. Edward Gardner Murphy has photographed little children of six and seven years who were at work for twelve and thirteen hours a day in Alabama mills.

—*The Bitter Cry of the Children.*

Taking the condition of labor as a whole, it seems probable that in spite of the disheartening circumstances that have been enumerated, the American workman is better off today than he was in the seventies, certainly better off than in earlier years. The most definite information on this point comes from the Massachusetts Bureau of Labor. They report that the income of the families of workingmen of the better class in 1872 and 1875 was \$763; in 1901-'02 it was \$814. In the meantime retail prices decreased about twenty per cent, so that the actual earning power was considerably greater than before. Another test is the increase in the consumption of semi-luxuries, such as coffee, tea, sugar, tobacco, beer, etc. The per capita consumption of these has increased greatly since the seventies.

A second group of books deals with the problem of wealth and the problem of poverty. The number of millionaires in America, and the colossal size of some individual fortunes, are facts that we are alternately proud of and afraid of. Professor Jenks thus expresses the power of a small group of our capitalists:

It has been said that there are ten men living in the United States who, if they were willing to act together, could, within a short time, control the fortunes of all the great railroads of the country, of the steamship traffic on the Great Lakes, of more than one of the trans-Atlantic and trans-Pacific steamship lines, and of the telephone and telegraph systems. They could likewise direct the policy of by far the largest part of the mining of anthracite coal, of the oil industry, sugar refining, the manufacture of linseed oil, even of chewing gum, and of almost any other one or more industries which they might decide that they wished to control. These same men by combined action now control the most powerful banks of the country and are closely associated with the most powerful banks of Europe. They are ready to make loans to governments, to finance a nation as they finance a corporation. Some of these men are now interested in a large way in most,

if not all, of the industries named, and wherever their interest is small at the present time, their financial power is so great that by concentrating it on one independent industry they can beyond any question, secure and control it. The fact that we have great financial leaders whose power over industry is almost supreme cannot be denied. The extent of that power and the small number who may exert it is startling.

—*Great Fortunes, the Winning, the Using.*

These great fortunes, according to Mr. Carnegie, are the inevitable result of four things: individualism, private property, the law of accumulation of wealth, and the law of competition. These he says are conditions under which the best interests of the human race are promoted, but which inevitably give wealth to the few. The problem then arises how is this wealth to be administered? This he answers as follows:

This, then, is held to be the duty of the man of wealth: To set an example of modest, unostentatious living, shunning display or extravagance; to provide moderately for the legitimate wants of those dependent upon him, and after doing so, to consider all surplus revenues which come to him simply as trust funds, which he is called upon to administer in the manner which, in his judgment, is best calculated to produce the most beneficial results for the community—the man of wealth thus becoming the mere trustee and agent for his poorer brethren. . . . The best means of benefiting the community is to place within its reach the ladders upon which the aspiring can rise—free libraries, parks, and means of recreation, by which men are helped in body and mind; works of art certain to give pleasure and improve the public taste; and public institutions of various kinds, which will improve the general condition of the people; in this manner returning their surplus wealth to the mass of their fellows in the forms best calculated to do them lasting good. . . . The day is not far distant when the man who dies leaving behind him millions of available wealth, which was free for him to administer during life, will pass away “unwept, unhonored, and unsung,” no matter to what uses he leaves the dross which he cannot take with him. Of such as these the public verdict will then be: “The man who dies thus rich dies disgraced.”

—*The Gospel of Wealth.*

The question of what to do with too much money is rather easier to solve than the question of what to do with too little. Where does poverty begin? Several of our economists have attempted to answer this question. John Mitchell said that a workingman with an average family, should live in a sanitary, comfortable house, provide good food for his family, be able to keep his children in school

until the age of sixteen, and lay up enough to maintain himself in illness or old age. To do this he estimated would cost \$600 a year, in towns of five thousand to one hundred thousand inhabitants. In the country the cost of living would lower this estimate; in large cities, it would be increased. That estimate was made in 1902. J. A. Ryan, writing four years later, gives an analysis of the budgets of 2,132 families of working people, and finds the annual expenditure as \$610.61, thus confirming Mitchell's figures. Scott Nearing, the latest writer on this subject, cites figures to show that the minimum cost of maintaining a family in decent comfort in our large cities at the present time is \$900.

With these standards in mind we may inquire what proportion of our working men receive a "living wage." Scott Nearing's figures show that of unskilled laborers, fifty per cent receive less than \$600 per year, and from this must be deducted the loss through unemployment, which is estimated at twelve per cent of the yearly earnings. With this deduction he finds the earnings of the adult male workmen of Massachusetts to be as follows: about one-third receive less than \$459 per year; seven-tenths receive less than \$686; nine-tenths receive less than \$915 per year. A government investigation of the Bethlehem Steel plant showed that 61.2 per cent., or nearly two-thirds of the workmen, earned less than \$625 per year. Of the million and a half railroad employés in the United States more than half receive less than \$625. Taking all industries together, the average wages range from \$500 to \$600; and half the adult male workers receive less than \$600.

Now if we take John Mitchell's estimate of \$600 a year in 1902 and increase it by a third, to allow for the increased cost of living, we have \$800, as the cost of maintaining a family in decent comfort. When that sum is reduced, first, comfort is sacrificed, then decency, then—what? The records of our charities and our prisons give the answer. And here, too, we find the explanation of women and children in industry. When the man's wage is not enough to

support the family, the mother and the children must go to the factory, too.

The same problem has been studied for the women workers in Pittsburgh and Boston. It was found that in Pittsburgh the lowest wage on which a girl can live decently is \$7.00 a week, and that sixty per cent of the working girls in that city are receiving less than that. In Boston the story is the same. In other words many of the employers of girls and women are actually paying them less than it costs to live. Yet they do live, and who pays the difference? If the girl lives at home, the difference is paid by the family. If she does not, the investigators report that in many cases the wage of the employer is supplemented by the wage of shame. And this is the price we pay for department store bargains. The "marvels of cheapness" were manufactured and sold by women and girls who work for a wage that does not keep soul and body together.

Side by side with these conditions in the labor world, we find among employers the greatest aggregations of capital the world has ever seen. A single industry is capitalized at a billion dollars; great combinations loosely known as trusts control our transportation, much of our manufacturing, and are reaching out to control retail business. The story of the growth of one of the greatest of these corporations is told by Ida M. Tarbell, in her *History of the Standard Oil Company*. It is a record of wise foresight, of wonderful organization; of a business literally world-wide in its scope; it is a record, too of ruthless crushing of competitors, of secret rebates, of evasion of law, of records destroyed to hide evidence. In a word, it is the story of "big business" as it has been told in the case of the insurance companies, the railroads, and the packing houses; a story of combinations which grew to immense size by methods which,—fair or unfair,—the laws are powerless to control. And the growth of these great combinations has meant the rise of great private fortunes. A writer on the iron and steel industry calls his book *The Story of a Thousand Millionaires*.

So we have in this country of ours, on the one side the wage-earners of America, more than half of them receiving less than a fair living wage: on the other side the greatest aggregations of wealth and the largest private fortunes the world has ever seen. Is it any wonder that there is a "social unrest?"

Seeking relief from present conditions, many have turned to socialism. A few years ago this was thought of as something that only concerned a few foreigners who had not yet become Americanized. Today a single socialist paper, printed in English, has a circulation of nearly half a million copies. The labor unions show a marked tendency toward socialism, some have openly adopted socialistic principles, and many of their papers are strongly tinged with socialistic ideas.

This brings us to the subject of politics. Readers will recall the picture of the political boss quoted from A. H. Lewis's novel: here is the boss as pictured by the economist, Frederic C. Howe:

In this new rôle the boss has become a modern feudal baron, who does homage to his superior, levies tribute upon society, and distributes favors with a free hand to his retainers as did his prototype of old. He is the link which unites the criminal rich with the criminal poor. For the former he obtains millions in grants, franchises, privileges, and immunity from the burden of taxation. To the latter, in payment for election services, he dispenses small gratuities in the form of protection from the police, in jobs, in staying the hand of justice, and in caring for the weak, sick, and helpless in time of need. He organizes the party and devotes himself to its success. He controls the primaries; oversees legislation, and is a sort of "fence" for those who would make use of the government for private ends. Party regularity has become a merchantable asset, which he uses for his own political advancement and the promotion of those interests whose agent he is.

—*The City, the Hope of Democracy.*

The cause of the corruption in our politics is ascribed by Professor Laughlin to the unholy alliance between business and politics. He says:

Never has the upper house of Congress been held so cheaply by the citizen as it is today. The traditional and honorable title of senator now covers the mountebank, the unscrupulous lumber or mining king, or the successful manipulator of State legislators through the use of corporation interests within the states. . . . This is an unmistakable consequence of embarking on a policy by

which industries are directly affected in their profit and loss by legislation. The concerns of the state as a whole become thus inextricably entangled with the pecuniary gains of special interests or of private persons. . . . This explanation gives us the clew as to the reason why enormous sums of money are spent in our political campaigns. The American electorate is not more venal than that of other countries—such, for example, as that of England; but a system under which the rise and fall of great industries depends upon a vote of Congress, puts an enormous premium on the corrupt use of money in elections.

—*Industrial America.*

More encouraging is the message of Philip Allen in *America's Awakening*. It is an account of how one city after another has thrown off the corrupt rings which governed them. In Philadelphia this contest arose over the question of leasing the city gas works to a private corporation on terms which meant enormous profits to the company. This is how the citizens won the fight:

But the really unique feature of the Philadelphia fight was its pressure upon the individual councilmen. One of the secrets of the prolonged interest displayed by the people when once interested was that they were assigned to do something perfectly concrete and within the powers of every one. This was to confront their own individual representatives in the city legislature. Not a councilman was allowed to rest. Processions of citizens marched through their wards to see what they proposed to do about the gas lease. These marches were usually on foot, but in one of the wealthier quarters of the city a great serpent of automobiles pursued the local member until they found him trying to sneak back to his own house and told him what they thought of his handling of their common interests.

In the fashionable suburb of Germantown there was prepared a large poster. "Call on your select councilman," it said. Then it contained pictures of the man himself, his house, his place of business, and the station house where he was in the habit of spending much of his time. The street and number of each of these places were printed and the telephone number into the bargain. Thirty-five men offered at once to begin calling upon this councilman at seven o'clock in the morning, and keep it up through the day in squads of five at a time. At ten that night he weakened and promised to vote against the lease.

—*America's Awakening.*

In recent years the cities of New York, of Boston, of Philadelphia, of Cleveland, of Jersey City have been carried by strong reform movements. Not only this, but the state and national legislatures have been making better laws. The Pure Food bill was passed after literally seventeen years of postponement; the railroad rate bill after a delay

nearly as long. The increase in the number of independent voters, the movement for direct primaries, the adoption of the initiative and referendum by state after state; all these measures which put the power back into the hands of the people are even stronger proofs of the changed spirit in our politics since the nineties.

The subject of woman suffrage has been fully discussed. One of the most significant books is that giving Miss Sumner's investigations in Colorado. She finds that the results of twelve years of suffrage in that state are as follows: The influence over the machinery of party politics, though not great, is probably beneficial. Women have been slack in the performance of duties other than voting; few attend the caucuses or primaries. Not many have been elected to office, but these have made good records. The economic effect of the ballot has been slight; the wages of women are decidedly lower than those of men. As voters, women split their tickets oftener than men, and their influence upon legislation has been good. The greatest effect has been upon the women themselves, in the gain in intelligence and public spirit. On the whole the investigation shows that while suffrage in Colorado has failed to effect the reforms hoped for by its advocates, it has not brought the evils feared by its opponents. The changes wrought by it are not great, but they are changes for the better.

On the problem of immigration Professor Commons states the present situation:

In 1882, a year when nearly 800,000 immigrants arrived, a remarkable change began in the character of immigration, destined to produce profound consequences. This change was the rapid shifting of the sources of immigration from Western to Eastern and Southern Europe. A line drawn across the continent of Europe from the northeast to southwest, separating the Scandinavian Peninsula, the British Isles, Germany, and France from Russia, Austria Hungary, Italy, and Turkey, separates countries not only of distinct races but also of distinct civilizations. It separates Protestant Europe from Catholic Europe; it separates countries of representative institutions and popular government from absolute monarchies, it separates lands where education is universal from lands where illiteracy predominates; it separates manufacturing countries, progressive agriculture, and skilled labor

from primitive hand industries, backward agriculture, and unskilled labor; it separates an educated, thrifty peasantry from a peasantry scarcely a single generation removed from serfdom; it separates Teutonic races from Latin, Slav, Semitic, and Mongolian races. When the sources of American immigration are shifted from the Western countries so nearly allied to our own, to Eastern countries so remote in the main attributes of Western civilization, the change is one that should challenge the attention of every citizen. . . . During twenty years the immigration of the Western races most nearly related to those which have fashioned American institutions declined more than 75 per cent, while the immigrants of Eastern and Southern races, untrained in self-government, increased nearly sixfold.

—*Races and Immigrants in America.*

These are the facts upon which Aldrich based his poem *The Unguarded Gates*, quoted in the CHAUTAUQUAN of January, 1912. The account of how this vast human tide has been directed toward our shores is illuminating:

Even more important than the initiative of immigrants have been the efforts of Americans and ship-owners to bring and attract them. Throughout our history these efforts have been inspired by one grand, effective motive,—that of making a profit upon the immigrants.

These labor speculators have perfected a system of inducements and through billing as effective as that by which horse and cattle buyers in Kentucky or Iowa collect and forward their living freight to the markets of Europe. A Croatian of the earlier immigration, for example, sets up a saloon in South Chicago, and becomes an employment bureau for his "greener" countrymen, and also ticket agent on commission for steamship companies. His confederates are stationed along the entire route at connecting points from the villages of Croatia to the saloon in Chicago. In Croatia they go among the laborers and picture to them the high wages and abundant work in America. They induce them to sell their little belongings, and they furnish them with through tickets. They collect them in companies, give them a countersign, and send them on to their fellow agent at Fiume, thence to Genoa or other port whence the American steamer vessel sails. In New York they are met by other confederates, whom they identify by their countersign, and again they are safely transferred and shipped to their destination. Here they are met by their enterprising countrymen, lodged and fed, and within a day or two handed over to the foreman in a great steel plant, or to the "boss" of a construction gang on a railway, or to a contractor on a large public improvement.

—*Races and Immigrants in America.*

Of the various discussions of the negro problem two of the ablest are by negroes themselves: Booker T. Washington and W. E. B. DuBois. The former states the problem concisely as follows: The census shows that we have about ten millions of negroes in the United States. To

transport them to another country is impossible, if for no other reason because the recent colonial expansion of European nations in Africa has left no place where they could go. This race, during slavery days, was trained to industry on the plantations and produced skilled workers in every department. Today, lacking such training, the race has sunk to the class of unskilled labor, with poverty and ignorance as the necessary results of their low industrial efficiency. The remedy is industrial education, training young men to be skilled agriculturists, dairymen, masons, carpenters, architects, machinists, electricians; these to go out among their people and carry the lessons of industry and thrift into whole communities.

Professor Du Bois holds that this proposal does not go far enough: that it is a counsel of submission to the conditions which make of the negro a servile caste, without political rights, and without due opportunity for developing their exceptional men through higher institutions of learning. He says:

So far as Mr. Washington preaches Thrift, Patience, and Industrial Training for the masses, we must hold up his hands and strive with him, rejoicing in his honors and glorying in the strength of this Joshua called of God and of man to lead the headless host. But so far as Mr. Washington apologizes for injustice, North or South, does not rightly value the privilege and duty of voting, belittles the emasculating effects of caste distinctions, and opposes the higher training and ambition of our brighter minds—so far as he, the South, or the North, does this,—we must unceasingly and firmly oppose them.

—*The Souls of Black Folk.*

It is worthy of note that the Indian problem, which was the subject of several books in the seventies, has ceased to be a problem at all. A wiser policy of dealing with this race has proved so successful that one is led to hope that perhaps in another generation people may look back upon the present discussion of the negro problem with a mild wonder as to what it was all about.

The conditions of life in our large cities have given rise to a whole group of problems, and the discussion of these forms almost a literature in itself. One of the best

authorities on municipal problems, Dr. Frederic C. Howe, who knows conditions in Europe as well as in America, has this to say in praise of our cities:

Moreover, there are certain realms of municipal activity that are above serious criticism. Our fire departments are the most efficient in the world, and are maintained at relatively small cost. The same is true of the administration of our parks, which is practically free from graft. The American library is the best in the world. A high order of ability is found serving upon its boards, and the maximum of service is attained through the introduction of branch libraries, distributing agencies, and the like. The public-school system, too, is a democratic movement, and even St. Louis, whose corruption has been held up to the scrutiny of the world, has, according to the statement of President Eliot of Harvard, the best school system in America. . . . In the activities just enumerated the American city is in advance of the cities of Great Britain and Germany.

—*The City, the Hope of Democracy.*

The political ills of our cities Dr. Howe attributes to the following cause:

An examination of the conditions in city after city discloses one sleepless influence that is common to them all. Underneath the surface phenomena the activity of privilege appears, the privileges of the street railways, the gas, the water, the telephone, and the electric lighting companies. The connection of these industries with politics explains most of the corruption, it explains the power of the boss and the machine; it suggests the explanation of the indifference of the "best" citizen and his hostility to democratic reform.

—*The City, the Hope of Democracy.*

He would have the city own and operate its street railways, its gas works, its electric light and telephone companies. He points out that these franchises, in most cases given away, are capitalized at a value that is startling. In New York alone, the franchises of the city, in excess of the physical value of the property, exceed the amount of the city net debt. "They amount to more than one hundred dollars, for every man, woman, and child within the city." And for these grants the city receives no return whatever. A workman in the city is almost compelled to use the street cars twice a day; and perhaps to travel on more than one line.

Out of every day's income he must pay from ten to thirty cents in carfare; out of every week's wages from sixty cents to two dollars; out of his annual income from thirty-five to one hundred dollars for services which are incidental to life, and a bur-

den which the city involves. This means that the working girl and common laborer must pay from one-sixth to one-tenth of their wages for transportation; that the standard of living of every laborer, mechanic, and working man is reduced to that extent; that he will pay into the pockets of a private company more than he pays in taxes to the nation, the state, and the city; more than he pays for his schools, his water, police, and fire protection; more than he pays for all of the public returns that organized society accords him. This toll is a tariff on the education of his children, a tariff which often amounts to an embargo.

—*The City, the Hope of Democracy*

Municipal operation of this and other public utilities, which would render service at cost, would, he says, make a considerable difference in the burdens of the poor in our cities.

An important group of these books deal with the work of the settlements. There are no finer chapters in the history of philanthropy than the accounts of what has been done by noble men and women to help the dwellers in the tenements. The biography of Jane Addams, the founder of Hull-House, Chicago, affords as fine an example of a life consecrated to humanity as that of any saint of the Middle Ages,—and it may be added, far more productive of practical results than most saints' lives. The story of Hull-House, with its influence upon the social, economic, and religious life of the most densely populated quarter of the city, cannot be told by enumerating the clubs and classes which center in the settlement; it is written large in better homes, in wholesomer pleasures, in higher citizenship, in wiser laws for the whole city.

Mr. Jacob A. Riis has done more than anyone else to make people in general realize the life of the poor in great cities. The crowding, the poverty, the ignorance, the disease,—all these things are familiar enough now, but that they are so well known is due in large part to the author of *How the Other Half Lives*. And here too, we may find cause for encouragement in the progress that has been made. Mr. Riis has lived to see some of the worst tenements torn down, to be replaced by parks; he has seen laws passed forbidding the construction of the dark-roomed type

of tenement; he has seen block after block of model homes erected by private philanthropy; he has seen playgrounds provided for the thousands of children who had no other place for games than the crowded streets; he has seen the gymnasiums of the public schools opened in the evenings for young fellows who had found no other place open but the saloon. The problems of the city, economic and social, are great indeed, but the efforts that have been made to better conditions are signs of an awakened social conscience that will not let us sleep until wrongs are righted.

Finally, what is the position of the church in America to-day? According to Thompson, the Protestant church is losing ground, especially among the working people.

The three New England states which have given their religion and political character to Northern and Western states are themselves now predominantly Catholic. In all of the Northern manufacturing and industrial states and in their great cities the marvelous organization and discipline of the Roman Catholic Church has carefully provided every precinct, ward, or district with chapels, cathedrals, and priests even in advance of the inflow of population, while the scattered forces of Protestantism overlap in some places and overlook other places. Two consequences have followed. The Protestant churches in much the larger part of their activities have drawn themselves apart in an intellectual and social round of polite entertainment for the families of the mercantile, clerical, professional, and employing classes, while the Catholic churches minister to the laboring and wage-earning classes.

—*The Church and the Wage Earner.*

The author quotes Dr. Josiah Strong to the effect that less than thirty per cent of the population of America are regular church attendants, while fully one-half never attend at all. This non-church going class consists mainly of farmers, factory workers, and immigrants. The causes for this loss of influence among workers Thompson finds as follows:

This is "the sociological age of the world;" and the questions in which people are interested are no longer theological but sociological. The "social movement" is the people's movement; it is their religion; its problems are ultimately religious problems, and many men are glad to recognize their religious aspects.

—*The Church and the Wage Earner.*

Other causes he states as: the lack of real democracy in the Protestant churches; the social distinction which makes poor people feel their position; and the failure of

the pulpit to rebuke wickedness in high places. He comments upon the vast growth of lodges and fraternal orders as in striking contrast with the stationary position of the church.

So far as his criticism refers to the neglect by the church of social questions, a glance at the list of books under Religion will show that at the present time no subject is receiving more attention than this at the hands of the leading religious writers. The need has been recognized, the leaders of the church are summoning it to its new duties.

It is hardly possible to summarize the wide field of topics treated in this paper. Yet some general considerations may be given. In the first place, it is interesting to note how closely the picture of life given in imaginative works such as the novel, the drama and poetry, corresponds to the actual facts as recorded by the student of sociology or economics. The hard conditions of many of our toilers, the appalling situation with regard to child labor, the rule of the boss in local politics, the power of great corporations in state and national affairs, all these are not the distorted visions of a heated imagination but have their parallel in actual conditions to-day. The message of the poet and the novelist is confirmed by the statist and the economist.

Again, it is interesting to note how these problems are not separate, but are curiously interwoven. The problem of labor and the problem of capital cannot be separated; the trust problem touches capital on one side, labor on another, and politics on a third; the problem of immigration, threatening our standards of living, our institutions and even our racial character, has grown out of the efforts of modern industrialism to find the cheapest labor, even as the negro problem was the result of a similar "assisted" immigration in early days. The problems of city life grow in part from the massing of immigrants, in part from the fact that our great instruments of public service are in private hands. At bottom, the ills of our national life are due to causes not

social but economic. The fault is not in our people, but in badly-adjusted conditions.

BOOKS DEALING WITH ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL QUESTIONS

THE LABOR PROBLEM

Abbott, Edith.—Women in Industry. Adams, T. S. and Sumner, H. L.—**Labor Problems.** Addams, Jane.—**Newer Ideals of Peace.** Bosworth, Louise M.—**The Living Wage of Women Workers.** Butler, E. B.—**Women and the Trades.** Carlton, Frank T.—**History and Problems of Organized Labor.** Commons, Jno. R.—**Trade Unionism and Labor Problems.** Clark, Sue A. and Wyatt, Edith.—**Working Girls' Budgets.** Ely, Richard T.—**The Labor Movement in America.** Fagan, J. O.—**Labor and the Railroads.** Gladden, Washington.—**Working People and Their Employers.** Husband, Jos.—**A Year in a Coal Mine.** Kelley, Florence.—**Some Ethical Gains through Legislation.** Laughlin, J. Lawrence.—**Industrial America.** Lincoln, J. T.—**The City of the Dinner Pail.** MacLean, Annie M.—**Wage-Earning Women.** Mitchell, John.—**Organized Labor, its Problems, Purposes and Ideals.** More, Louise B.—**Wage-Earners Budgets.** Nearing, Scott.—**Wages in the United States.** Roberts, Peter.—**Anthracite Coal Communities.** Ryan, J. A.—**A Living Wage.** Spahr, Chas. B.—**America's Working People.** Spargo, John.—**The Bitter Cry of the Children.** Tolman, W. H.—**Social Engineering.** Van Vorst, B. and M.—**The Woman Who Toils.** Warne, Frank J.—**The Coal Mine Workers.** Wright, Carroll D.—**Some Ethical Phases of the Labor Question.** Wyckoff, W.—**The Workers—The East; The Workers—The West.**

THE PROBLEM OF WEALTH AND THE PROBLEM OF POVERTY

Bolen, Geo. A.—**Getting a Living.** Cronau, R.—**Our Wasteful Nation.** Carnegie, Andrew.—**The Gospel of Wealth; Problems of Today.** Devina, Edward T.—**Principles of Relief.** George, Henry.—**Progress and Poverty.** Gladden, Washington.—**The New Idolatry.** Gilman, N. P.—**A Dividend to Labor.** Hunter, Robert.—**Poverty.** Jenks, J. W.—**Great Fortunes, the Winning, the Using.** Nearing, Scott.—**Wages in the United States.** Richardson, B. J.—**The Woman Who Spends.** Riis, J. A.—**The Children of the Poor; How the Other Half Lives.** Shaw, Albert.—**The Outlook for the Average Man.** Solenberger, Alice W.—**One Thousand Homeless Men.** Van Dyke, Jno. C.—**The Money God.**

THE PROBLEM OF THE TRUSTS

Bridge, J. H.—**The Trust, Its Book.** Clark, J. B.—**Control of Trusts.** Ely, Richard T.—**Monopolies and Trusts.** Jenks, J. W.—**The Trust Problem.** Kinkbride and Sterrett.—**The Modern Trust Company.** Lloyd, H. D.—**Wealth against Commonwealth.** Pierce, Franklin.—**The Tariff and the Trusts.** Ripley, W. Z.—**Trusts, Pools and Corporations.** Tarbell, Ida M.—**History of the Standard Oil Company.**

IS SOCIALISM THE ANSWER?

Bliss, W. D. P.—**Handbook of Socialism.** Brooks, Jno. G.—**The Social Unrest.** Ely, Richard T.—**Socialism and the Social Reform.** Gilman, N. P.—**Socialism and the American Spirit.** Hunter, Robert.—**Socialists at Work.** Hillquit, Morris.—**Socialism in Theory and Practice.** Kauffman, R. W.—**What Is Socialism?** Kelly, Edmond.—**Twentieth Century Socialism.** London, Jack.—**The War of the Classes.** Russell, Charles E.—**Why I am a Socialist; Business, the Heart of the Nation.** Sinclair, Upton.—**The Industrial Republic.** Spalding, Jno. L.—**Socialism and Labor.** Spargo, John.—**Socialism.**

THE PROBLEM OF POLITICS

Allen, W. H.—**Efficient Democracy.** Allen, Philip L.—**America's Awakening.** Brooks, Robert C.—**Corruption in American Politics and Life.** Butler, N. M.—**True and False Democracy.** Howe, Frederic C.—**Democracy and Privilege in America.** Johnson, Helen K.—**Woman and the Republic.** Steffens, L.—**The Struggle for Self-Government.** Sumner, Helen L.—**Equal Suffrage.** White, W. A.—**The Old Order Changeth.** Weyl, Walter E.—**The New Democracy.**

THE PROBLEM OF IMMIGRATION

Commons, Jno. R.—Races and Immigrants in America. Hall, P. F.—Immigration. Jenks, Jeremiah W.—The Immigration Problem. Steiner, E. A.—The Immigrant Tide; On the Trail of the Immigrant. Woods, R. R.—Americans in Process.

THE NEGRO PROBLEM

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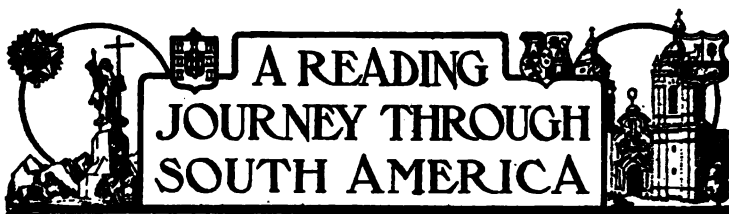
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VIII. Ecuador and Colombia*

Harry Weston VanDyke†

ECUADOR, "the Switzerland of America," is one of the smallest of our sister republics in the South, yet her area, of 116,000 square miles, is equal to that of our States of Missouri and Arkansas combined, and, if certain pending boundary disputes should be determined in her favor, her territory would be more than doubled. Her population is now about 1,500,000, an average of a little over thirteen to the square mile.

Politically, the republic is divided into sixteen provinces, not including the Gallápagos Islands. Five are maritime, occupying the strip of coast between the Western Cordillera of the Andes and the sea, ten are interandine, and then there is the *Oriente*, so called, which consists of all the country embraced in the slope between the Eastern Cordillera and the Brazilian frontier, in the valley of the Amazon. There are two fluvial systems, both rising in the mountains, one flowing west to the sea and the other down the eastern slope. In all they are composed of ninety-one rivers. Those tributary to the Guayas, flowing westward

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Previous instalments of this series are "Discovery and Conquest" in the CHAUTAUQUAN for September, 1911, "Colonial Period and War of Independence," October, 1911, "Brazil," November, 1911, "Argentina," December, 1911, "Uruguay, Paraguay, and Bolivia," January, 1912, "Peru," February, 1912, "Chile," March, 1912.

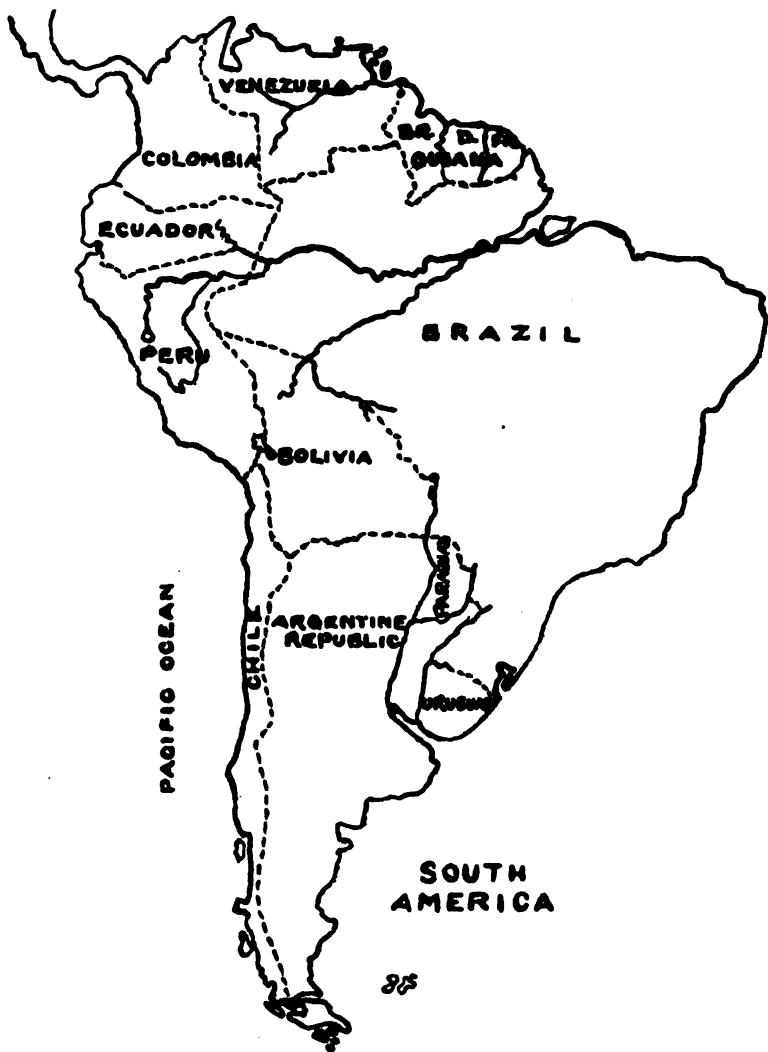
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to the sea, and many of which are of considerable size, are now of the greater commercial importance because the country of the *Oriente* through which those tributary to the Amazon flow is still a wilderness, only sparsely inhabited even by what are left of the aborigines—and this although it is the richest of all in vegetation and fertility of soil, like the adjoining *montaña* district of Peru.

Thus, ranging as it does from the sea level of the coast on one side and the valley of the Amazon on the other to the high interandine plateau, and from thence to the great cloud-piercing peaks of the cordilleras, crowned with perpetual snow, this country directly beneath the Equator, from which it derives its very name, is possessed of every variety of climate within the sphere of a few hours journey: in the lowlands, the eternal summer of the tropics; on the high tablelands, eternal spring, and, in the glacial regions of the mountain summits, winter without end. As the late Professor Orton so aptly put it in his *Andes and the Amazon*:

"As the Ecuadorian sees all the constellations of the firmament, so nature surrounds him with representatives of every family of plants. Tropical, temperate and arctic fruits and flowers are here found in profusion, or could be successfully cultivated. There are places where the eye can embrace an entire zone, for it may look up to a wheat or barley field or potato patch and down to the sugar cane and pineapple."

And, in addition to the familiar products, in many places the slopes of the mountains between 12,000 and 15,000 feet are clothed with a shrub peculiar to the high altitudes of the Andes, called *chquiragua*, the twigs of which are used for fuel and the yellow buds as a febrifuge. In the valley between the cordilleras a very useful and valuable, as well as the most ordinary, plant is the American aloe, or century plant, which under cultivation, however, blooms oftener than once in a hundred years. It is the largest of all the herbs, and, with its tall stem rising from a cluster of long, thick, gracefully curved leaves, looks like a great chandelier. Most of the roads are fenced with

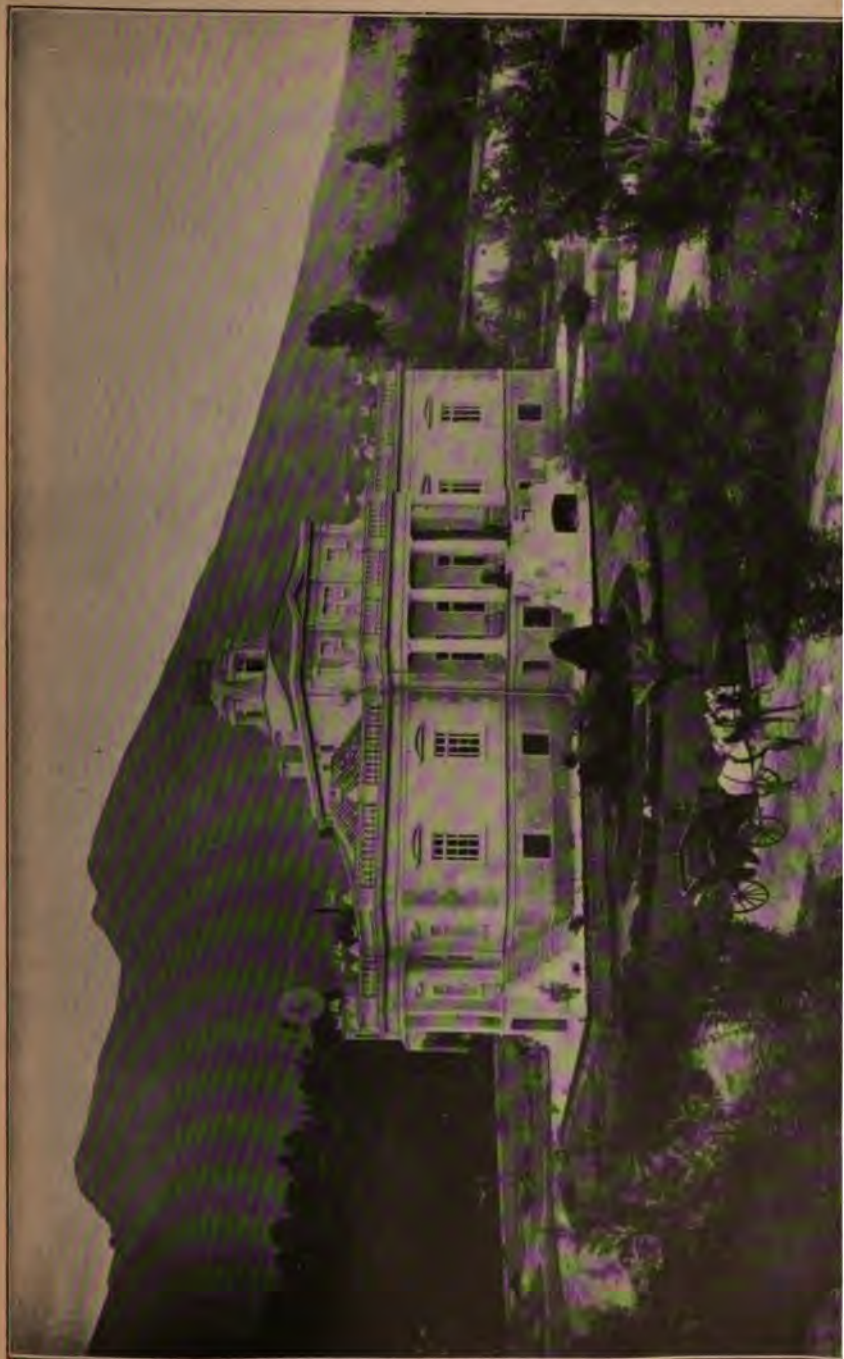




View of Chimborazo in Ecuador—Altitude 21,420 feet



Room in the old Palace at Quito, Ecuador, in which the Declaration of Independence was signed on August 16, 1809. The altar, ceiling and benches are fine samples of old Spanish wood carving





Double zig-zag track on the Devil's Nose near the Quayaquil and Quito Railway, Ecuador

hedges of them. Nearly every part serves some practical purpose. The broad leaves are used for thatching huts and by the poorer classes as a substitute for paper in writing; a syrup flows from them when tapped; as they contain much alkali, a soap that lathers in salt water as well as fresh is also manufactured from them; the fibre of the leaves and roots is woven into sandals and sacks; the flowers, make excellent pickles, the stalk is used in building, the pith of the stem is used by barbers for sharpening razors and the spines are used as needles. A species of *yucca*, resembling the aloe, yields the hemp of Ecuador.

In the lowlands, cacao (the chocolate and cocoa bean), and sugar cane, coffee, tobacco, rice, cotton and bananas and other tropical fruits are grown. The forests contain rubber and numerous species of useful trees, among them the tree that yields what is known as *taque* nut, or vegetable ivory, from which buttons are made, the grasses and *toquilla* palm used in the manufacture of the courser grades of Panama hats, the *chincona* from the bark of which quinine is obtained, the mangrove cultivated for tanning purposes as well as its fruit, and the silk-cotton tree that yields the valuable commercial product known as *kapok*. A considerable portion of the *Oriente* is verdured with a part of that immense forest which extends in an unbroken mass from the grassy *llanos* of Venezuela to the *pampas* of Argentina. In other sections of the country are gold, silver, copper, iron, coal, petroleum, asphalt and other minerals, though since the colonial régime there has been little activity in mining. Only a few years ago work was resumed in the famous mines of Zaruma, formerly the source of much revenue to the Spaniards.

The tobacco grown in the Province of Esmeraldas on the coast is claimed to be comparable with that produced in Cuba. And that reminds me that, unless tradition is at fault, the town of Atacames, from around which some of the best of it comes, has quite a unique history of its own. In 1623, so the story goes, a vessel laden with 700 African

slaves was on its way from Panama to Peru, where they were to be worked in the mines. When near the mouth of the Esmeraldas river, they mutinied, massacred the officers and sailors of the ship, and, landing at Atacames, took possession of the town and killed or drove away every man in the neighborhood, Indian or Spanish, but spared the women, whom they kept as wives. Afterwards, however, instead of indulging in further depredations, they kept within the territory they had conquered, and, mixing with the Cayapas who had attained an unusual state of civilization before the invasion, became miners and agriculturalists on their own account. These African mutineers, therefore, protected by the reputation for ferocity they had acquired in their stroke for freedom, were thus the founders of what afterward became an intelligent and industrious community. The women, particularly, are famous for their skill in making woven grass hats.

Indeed, aside from agriculture, the most important industry in all the coast provinces is the making of these hats. Guayaquil long since supplanted Panama as the principal market for them. Those of the finest texture, the ones that are so soft and delicately woven they can be folded and put in a coat pocket like a handkerchief and last a lifetime, are made of a peculiar grass called *jipi-japa*, for which the town in the Province of Manavi is named, and, in the weaving of them, considerable time and great skill is required. These we seldom, if ever, see in this country. Many go to Paris, Italy and Spain; more are taken by the planters along the coast, and in Cuba, who are willing to pay as much as \$80 to \$100 for them. They are woven by the women by hand, and only in the moonlight, these best grades, because the sun would harden the material, artificial light would attract insects and the dampness that comes with sunset is necessary to give the flexibility so essential to their beauty. The coarser grades, such as we see here, are woven in the daytime, but under water, in tubs.

Guayaquil, a city of about 50,000 inhabitants, is Ecuador's principal seaport, and, next to Valparaiso and Callao, the busiest and most important on the Pacific side of the continent. All the way up from Callao the steamer hugs the shore as closely as safety will permit. There is little change in the view. The same arid strip of low-lying coast land, dotted with rocky promontories, fringed here and there with cliffs and crossed with occasional stretches of green where the rivers flow through to the sea, continues day after day—the same background of mountains rising tier on tier for thousands and thousands of feet, in the morning partly obscured by heavy banks of clouds that later melt away and leave the rugged contour sharply silhouetted against the bright blue, are bathed in the evening, as the sun sinks toward the horizon, in the purple haze that becomes them best. Yet there are also the same calm sea and rainless sky and the same cool, aromatic breezes that make the lazy hours on deck a continual delight.

And so it is with mixed feelings of regret and relief that we enter the gulf of Guayaquil—relief, for here, as we steam past the island of Puna, where Pizarro camped for months awaiting reinforcements before beginning the conquest of Peru, the aspect of the shore line changes and we see foliage as fresh and green and as wildly luxuriant as any in the basins of the interior. Passing the island, we come to the mouth of the Guayas, the greatest of South American rivers emptying into the Pacific. The city is sixty miles beyond at the head of the estuary. The first glimpse we catch is of a street, called El Malecon, that extends along the water front for two miles or more from a shipyard to a hill crowned by a fortress. This is at once the principal shopping, café and amusement place, the favorite promenade, the warehouse district and the quay where the lighters that ply between it and the vessels anchored out in the river take on and unload their cargoes. It is faced with what from the deck appear to be long rows

of stone and marble buildings of beautiful and graceful architectural design, for the most part of the Moorish type. Long series of arcades in front of the shops remind one of those of the Rue de Rivoli in Paris; above are pretty balconies sheltered by blinds and awnings of gaily-colored canvas screening groups of ladies who like to sit in them and watch the lively scene below as they sip their coffee and chat.

But picturesque as it all is, one finds on going ashore, that the walls of these imposing-looking edifices are merely shells of split bamboo, plastered with cement, ornamented with stucco and painted to resemble marble and stone, which sad experience has taught the people of the city will not resist the earthquakes as well as this more elastic imitation they have been compelled to substitute. The residences of the well-to-do are constructed of the same materials and with wide verandas from ground to roof, enclosed with Venetian blinds. Few are elaborately furnished. In that climate it is thought better, for the sake of spaciousness and comfort, to forgo evidences of wealth in the form of carpets, hangings, and upholstery, which keep out air and retain the heat. The poor of the suburbs have thatched bamboo or adobe huts with floors of hardened earth. As in Canton, China, many of them live on the water on rafts made from *balsa*, a species of timber nearly as buoyant as cork. A number of logs forty or fifty feet long, or else the hollow trunks of the bamboo, are lashed together in such a way that they can be propelled by either oars or sails, and a bamboo hut is built in the center. These often serve as the homes of whole families for generations, and are so substantial that they are used in the coasting as well as in the river trade for bringing produce to market.

In June, 1908, a long-desired and much-needed railroad was completed between Guayaquil and the capital, Quito, way up in the interandine tableland, 9,350 feet above the level of the sea, and now the trip of nearly three

hundred miles, that formerly took from twelve to fifteen days on muleback, and often more by foot, may be made in two days, in a comfortably equipped passenger train. The scenery *en route* is gorgeous. The train speeds through forests of stately trees like those of the Amazon—walnut, mahogany, rubber, cacao, cottonwood, with vines entwined around their trunks and hanging from their branches and beds of mosses and ferns at their feet, with slender bamboos shooting up straight as an arrow, and tall, graceful palms, tipped with feathery tufts—the whole mass aglow with scarlet passion flowers and orchids, and flowers of every hue. Then come broad fields covered with prickly pineapple plants, sugar cane, coffee and snowy cotton plantations and groves of cocoa palms, oranges, lemons and limes saturating the air with their delicious fragrance, splendid mango trees with their golden fruit and dense foliage that makes them the best of all shade trees in the tropics, and groves of banana palms, tossing out glossy green leaves eight feet long from their sheath-like stalks, and many bearing bunches of this bread of the poor and delicacy of the rich that weigh from sixty to seventy pounds. Von Humboldt calculated that “thirty-three pounds of wheat and ninety-nine pounds of potatoes require the same space of ground that will produce four thousand pounds of bananas.” They bear fruit but once and die, but the roots are perennial and every year bring forth new plants.

Then, when the traveller has crossed the coast strip, he comes to the foothills and begins the steep, tortuous ascent. On either side of this highland but ever green central valley in which the capital lies, tower mountains, the crests of forty-two of which are more than ten thousand feet high. Twenty of them are higher than Pike’s Peak in Colorado; fourteen are higher than the Alpine giant, Mont Blanc. Says an eminent scientist (Simpson in his *Travels in the Wilds of Ecuador*):

“Here are volcanoes and volcanic productions in every stage, immense plains of volcanic sand, mountains and vales of tuff and

scoriae, in some of the lower strata of which are embedded animal remains of the quaternary period—streams of lava, fields of pumice, and the great cones themselves, some extinct, others smoking and dormant.”

It was in this vast, magnificent “Avenue of Volcanoes” that the celebrated artist, Frederick E. Church, painted his wonderful picture, “The Heart of the Andes;” here, he declared, is the grandest mountain scenery in the world.

The most majestic of them all is snow-covered Chimborazo near the center of the Western Cordillera, and fortunately almost constantly in view, for it is along its spurs that the road between Guayaquil and Quito ascends. One would not imagine its summit so very hard to reach, as it appears from the mountain pass at an elevation of fourteen thousand feet; yet many explorers from von Humboldt down, strove for the honor only to fail until Edward Whymper, an Englishman, finally achieved it in 1879. For years, with its known altitude of 21,420 feet, it was famed as the highest point in America; now the mighty Aconcagua in Argentina, which has recently been discovered to be at least 23,000 feet and is estimated by the Harvard Observatory at Arequipa to be 24,760, has been awarded the palm. It is from shipboard on the Pacific, though, on a clear day, rather than from the plateau that Chimborazo is to be seen in all the majesty of its complete proportions, particularly when the evening shadow’s mellowing tint creeps upward to the summit—a vision of gold, vermilion, purple, followed by the glory of the brief tropical sunset—in the few minutes before darkness covers the earth and “the haste of stars, trembling with excess of light, bursts suddenly into view over the peaks,” when the waters of the sea become so impregnated with phosphorescent flashes that each wave seems tipped with silver and the foam that follows in the vessel’s wake is like a stream of fire.

Conspicuous among the crests of the eastern range are Tunguragua, with its perfect cone and great cataract tumbling down fifteen hundred feet from the snow line to the

valley beneath, fierce, Plutonic Sangai, the most active volcano in the world, and the beautiful Altar, as it was called by the Spaniards, which is said to have been higher than Chimborazo a few years before the Conquest, but has since collapsed. Now its summit presents the appearance of a superb crown, pointed with eight jagged peaks; its snowy mantle is relieved by rents or fissures in the rock that seem to be colored dark blue in contrast with the white. And then there is the still more superb Cotopaxi, 19,613 feet, without a rival in height or symmetry among the active volcanoes of the old world. Some faint idea of its grandeur may be conceived by those who have seen Vesuvius, for instance, when it is realized that it is more than fifteen thousand feet—nearly three miles—higher and, when in eruption, vomits forth its fires, with ominous rumblings that can be heard for a hundred miles, from a cone which in itself is higher than Vesuvius. Mr. Whympers, who also succeeded here in making the perilous ascent where von Humboldt and others had failed, described the crater as an enormous amphitheater with a rugged crest surrounded by overhanging cliffs, some snow-clad, others encrusted with sulphur. He says:

"Cavernous recesses belched forth smoke; the sides of the cracks and chasms shone with ruddy light. At the bottom, probably twelve thousand feet below us, there was a ruddy circular spot about one-tenth the diameter of the crater; it was the pipe of the volcano, its channel of communication with the lower regions, and was filled with incandescent if not molten lava, glowing and burning, lighted by tongues of flame that issued from cracks in the surrounding slopes."

On the side of the mountain is a huge rock called the "Inca's Head." Tradition has it that this was the original summit, hurled down by an eruption on the very day that Atahualpa, the last of the Inca emperors, was strangled by Pizarro. The last great eruption was in 1859 and was succeeded by an earthquake that caused terrible destruction and loss of life, and by a tidal wave, which in its devastating course, carried a United States warship a mile inland, over the roofs of the houses of a town on the

coast of Peru and left it high and dry on a sandy plain. Just now the volcano is in a state of "solemn and thoughtful suspense;" only thin clouds of smoke escape from its crater.

At the base of Pichincha, whose crater the astronomer, La Condamine, likened to the "chaos of the poets," and Orton describes as "a frightful abyss nearly a mile in width and half a mile deep from which a cloud of sulphurous vapors comes rolling up," lies the city of Quito. Its origin is shrouded in mystery, but we know that at the time of the Conquest it was the northern stronghold of the great Inca empire, and the place where Atahualpa resided. On this lofty site, which in the Alps would be buried in an avalanche of snow, but in the tropics enjoys an eternal spring, palaces more beautiful than the Alhambra were built, glittering with the gold and emeralds of the Andes. But all this passed away with the scepter of Atahualpa. Where the pavilion of the Inca stood is now a gloomy convent; a wheat field takes the place of the Temple of the Sun. Even the Spanish structures that supplanted the original ones seem dilapidated enough now. Very different is the scene from that in Guayaquil. The population is said to number about 60,000, but there is little of the modern and still less in the way of opportunity for amusement, though it is all most interesting simply because it is so old and there is much of romance in its history.

After Lima and Santiago, the suburbs strike one as squalid and dilapidated. In the city proper, however, the houses improve in size and finish and continue to improve until the Grand Plaza is reached in the center. The more pretentious are of two stories, a few three, and of massive construction, with adobe walls two or three feet thick and tiled roofs, and are built around a square courtyard, or *patio*, in the old Spanish style, often with a fountain or flower plot in the center. Around the *patio* are pillared arches supporting a gallery used as the passage way to the rooms in the upper tier; the floors are paved with large, square, red

bricks. The public buildings, some of them dating back to Philip II, are clustered about the three plazas. The most imposing, the capitol, a low building adorned with a splendid colonnade, faces the Grand Plaza; with its long rows of columns it looks a little like the Fifteenth Street side of the Treasury Building in Washington. To the right of it is an ancient but beautiful cathedral; on the other side is the palace of the Papal Nuncio. All are fine specimens of the architecture of the periods in which they were built.

The scene in the shopping district and around the market has quite an Egyptian flavor. The shops are very small and exposed; groups in gay *ponchos*, a kind of shawl the men wear in the mountains, stand chatting and smoking in front of them or lean idly against the walls, enjoying the sunlight; soldiers saunter to and fro; Indians in every variety of costume are scattered about guarding heaps of vegetables they have brought in from the surrounding country for sale; bronze-complexioned women in many colored gowns peddle oranges and alligator pears from baskets carried on their heads; purchasers, mostly men and in more conventional attire, wander from store to store, for it is not here so much as in the vicinity of the churches that one is favored with a glimpse of the ladies of the upper class. They do little shopping themselves, these señoras and señoritas, yet they are very devout and it is their custom to wrap themselves in their black mantillas, like their sisters of the south, and attend mass every day.

One of the most charming impressions that one carries away from Ecuador is of the courtesy with which he has everywhere been treated, ceremonious and gracious in the drawing room, no less ready and kindly in the shops and hotels, on the streets and country roads. Even the *peones* tip their hats and are quick to respond to the slightest favor or pleasant word with a gratifying benediction.

COLOMBIA

Journeying overland into Colombia from Ecuador, there opens before the traveller the vast mountainous country that was once the ancient kingdom of the Chibchas—the contemporary of the Inca empire, and, later the pivotal state of Bolívar's great confederation. Colombia occupies the extreme northwestern corner of the continent; with its 465,714 square miles of territory, it is as large as Texas, Kansas, Arkansas and Louisiana, and has a population of 4,320,000. Until recent years Colombia tapered off into the narrow ribbon of the Isthmus of Panama, but northern diplomacy, in order to facilitate the construction of the long-needed interoceanic canal, snipped it off and bestowed it on the newly created Republic of Panama. In this corner of the continent the Andes come to an end in a great splurge of deep-cut ridges presenting an aspect very different from the formations to the south. Whereas in Ecuador, Peru and Bolivia, the ramifications of the Andes enclose many extensive and lofty plateaux, in Colombia three clearly defined cordilleras diverge from the Ecuadorian frontier and spread northward like the ribs of a fan; the Western and Central Cordilleras merge before reaching the Caribbean sea, and slope off into foothills and plains near the coast, and the Eastern Cordillera continues in an almost unbroken line until, as the Sierra de Parija, it plunges into the sea at the end of the bleak, forbidding peninsular (Goajira) west of the Gulf of Maracaibo. Rising from the Pacific, on the west, is an almost entirely distinct range of mountains, separated from the Andean terminals by the great basin of the Atrato river, and running along the Isthmus of Panama into Central America.

Just north of the Ecuadorian frontier lies the so-called "Massif of Colombia," from which branch off the three cordilleras just mentioned and in which the four important Colombian river systems have their source: the Patia flowing westward to the Pacific; the Caquetá, eastward, through

the Amazon, into the Atlantic, and the Cauca and Magdalena, the great highways of the country, flowing northward to the Caribbean on either side of the Central Cordillera, and joining their floods about one hundred and fifty miles from the sea in the hot, marshy plains of the Magdalena basin.

The Eastern Cordillera slopes off into the Orinoco and Amazon plains—over a territory constituting two-thirds of the republic's area—and thus gives to Colombia the same astonishing range of productiveness that distinguishes her southern neighbors along the Andean chain. Gold is scattered literally all over the Andean ridges and is picked up along the streams that flow into the lower levels; silver, iron and lead are almost as universally present; the platinum deposits are surpassed only in Russia; the emerald mines of Muzo, seventy-five miles from Bogotá, have been famous ever since the brilliant stones were torn from the turban crowns of the Indian kings by the *conquistadores*, and are the principal source of the world's supply; the salt mines and pearl fisheries add largely to the republic's revenue, and a wealth of agricultural products, typical of nearly every clime, lies in the great river basins and on the eastern slopes and plains in the Orinoco and Amazon regions. In the river basins and along up the mountain sides are the great forests, so dense as to be almost impenetrable, but abounding in nearly every species of cabinet and dye woods and nearly every medicinal plant known to science. In altitudes of from two to four thousand feet the coffee plant is indigenous; the berries from the celebrated Chimbi estates produce the most delicately flavored coffee in the world, but little of it ever reaches the United States. In the *tierras calientes*, or "hot lands," cacao, bananas, yuccas, arracha, sugar, indigo, tobacco, vanilla and rice are among the staple products. The soil of this region is of a rich, black, deep-lying loam, well watered and capable of a greater productiveness than the plains of Louisiana or

Texas. In the intermediate areas the cultivation includes wheat, barley, oats, potatoes and the cereals and vegetables common to the temperate zone.

It follows naturally that, as in Ecuador, the diversity in altitude which accounts for this varied productiveness gives to Colombia—a wholly tropical country—a range in climate that makes it one of the world's most attractive abiding places. Von Humboldt is quoted as saying of this country that the traveller needs but "a thermometer and a mule" to find any climate desired within the compass of a few leagues. When one tires of the torrid heat of the valleys, the frozen sierras are just in sight. When the perpetual spring of the table-lands palls upon him, he can, by a few hours ride find autumn on the steppes above, or summer in the plains below. If he is a sportsman, he can find his game among many species of the fauna of three zones: the jaguar, sloth, armadillo, tapir, the red deer, black bear, and panther, and in the jungles of the Amazon region, the tiger.

The overland route to Bogotá from Quito lies over a well-built highway which, in the not distant future, will be paralleled by Colombia's and Ecuador's contributions to the long-heralded Pan-American railway from Panama to Buenos Aires. Up to the present time Colombia has had but six hundred miles of railways: the little system radiating from the capital and connecting it with the Magdalena river, and, through that natural highway, with the Caribbean ports, and the short lines that run inland from the ports of both oceans; for Columbia is the only country in South America that borders on the Pacific and the Atlantic.

The traveller who enters the country in the saddle over the route mentioned will profit more than by sailing up the Pacific coast from Guayaquil and entering through the port of Buenaventura, for the journey along the lofty heights and down through the lovely green valleys will not only give him much more of the inspiring Andean scenery. but will make him acquainted with the country and village

life which he could not see at close range otherwise. But he will have to sacrifice many familiar comforts on the altar of education. The *posadas*, or village inns, at which he must stop are mere adobe huts with dirt floors, and none but rawhide cots are offered for his rest; the few dishes served at these primitive hostelries are plentifully seasoned with garlic, saffron and *morones*, or red peppers. The early hours of the journey will bring the traveller in conflict also with the all-pervading philosophy of *mañana* (tomorrow), and his progress will be slow; however, the unfailing courtesy and beguiling smiles of his muleteer will soon dispel his exasperation over delays, and he will find himself more and more repaid for his discomforts by the splendor and beauty and strangeness through which he is making his way.

Passing over the bleak, frozen *paramos*, or mountain deserts, wrapped in awful stillness by the great peaks rising above them, the scene suddenly changes as the road descends along the heavily wooded slopes and the world becomes alive with verdure and the sounds of birds; below him, in still more summery clime, lies, possibly, a beautiful little lozenge-shaped valley fringed about up the sides of the mountains with coffee plantations, groves of bamboo—and then on over equally sudden changes and different pictures of native life, until there begin to appear extensive plantations and well built houses, farm machinery, and, finally, reaching the railway which takes him, not unregretfully, from his guide and carries him up into the lofty *sabana*—the great alta-plain on which the capital Bogotá is located. This plateau is a level plain, about seventy miles long by about thirty in width, containing some two thousand square miles of treeless, arable land. It lies 8,700 feet above the sea in the very heart of the Eastern Cordillera, just below the fifth degree of north latitude, and ranges in temperature from sixty-five to fifty-nine degrees Fahrenheit the year around. Here was centered the old civilization of the Chibcha In-

dians, the dominant race of the northwest of the continent. From this plateau the descendants of their Spanish conquerors have administered the country since 1538. The *sabana* is now covered with prosperous plantations belonging to rich Bogotanos.

Here also was the theater of those first scenes of Spain's most engaging romance—"The Quest of the Gilded Man" (El Dorado). Into these heights swarmed the earliest of the Spanish adventurers who had picked up on the Isthmus the stories of golden cities over the mountains to the south. Among them were Rodrigo de Bastida, Alonzo de Ojeda, Diego de Nicuesa, Benalcazar, Herredia, Nuñez de Balboa and Francisco Pizarro; the last two became famous a little later, one as the discoverer of the Pacific Ocean and the other as conqueror of Peru.

The most successful of these, in Colombia, was the youthful *adelantado*, Gonzales Jiménez de Quesada—intrepid, aristocratic and deeply religious—who founded the present city of Bogotá near the ancient Chibcha capital, after he had conquered the nation. He found the legend of El Dorado was not altogether a myth. Among the Chibchas it was the custom to pass the throne to that son of the royal house who best sustained the test for fitness—the one who was able to pass through years of trial, seclusion and penance; years spent in trials of physical endurance and suffering. The prince who passed most creditably through this severe probation was brought forth on the appointed day to be proclaimed and anointed as the successor to the throne.

The scene of the ceremony was the little circular lake of Guatavita, some thirty miles northeast of Bogotá. About its shores were assembled great numbers of his future subjects, each carrying his offering of gold and precious stones to be thrown into the sacred waters to propitiate the gods. The prince, smeared all over with a resinous paste and powdered with dust of the precious metal until his whole

body gleamed in the sunlight like a golden statue, stepped upon a raft piled high with the treasure offerings of his subjects, and was rowed out to the center of the lake. There, amid the plaudits of the people lining the shores, the burden of gold, emeralds and other gems was thrown into the lake. Into it also plunged the gilded prince to wash from his body what was to be his own golden tribute. The chosen heir then returned to the capital as the Zipa designate, to await the time for his assumption of the crown.

It is no wonder that this little lake, where the ceremony had been held, perhaps for centuries, should have been looked upon by the Spaniards as a ready-made gold mine. No engineer has yet succeeded in draining off the waters, although a British syndicate has recently been organized, with a capital of a million dollars, for this purpose; it is entirely within the range of possibilities that the enterprise will succeed, and that the riches embedded in the muddy bottom of Guatavita may be recovered to pay a handsome dividend to the shareholders of the company.

Bogotá lies on the eastern border of the magnificent plain. When Quesada set foot on the *sabana*, he was struck by its resemblance to the broad plain of Santa Fe, in his native Grenada, on which the armies of Ferdinand and Isabella encamped during the siege which was to put an end to the power of the Moors in Spain. He therefore called his new capital Santa Fe de Bogotá, and New Granada became the name of the northern viceroyalty which was carved out of the Viceroyalty of Peru in 1717. Both names have disappeared; the capital has reverted to its ancient Indian name of Bogotá, and the name of Granada was perpetuated until 1861 in the name of the Republic of New Granada, which was succeeded in that year by the present constitutional Republic of Colombia.

The site of the present city, some twelve miles south-east of the ancient Chibcha capital *Bacatá*, was the location of the little Indian village of Tensaquilla, the pleasure re-

sort of the Zipas, nestling, like the Spanish city of Granada, at the foot of two mountains—Monseratte and Guadalupe. Down these mountains tumble the little streams that make up the nearby Funza river, which spreads out over the plain and then plunges down into the upper waters of the Magdalena. On the far side of this great river runs the Central Cordillera, some ninety miles west of the capital, and, on clear days, the giant white-topped volcano, Tolima, may be seen rising to a height of 18,400 feet, and the Mesa de Herveo, but sixty feet lower—constituting the culminating points of Colombia.

The traveller's first impressions of Bogotá are those of surprise and admiration—surprise at finding so large a city (150,000 in population) perched high up in the Andes, fully "six hundred miles from anywhere;" and admiration of the surpassing natural beauty of its locality. His next impression is that it is one of the most conservative, quiet and restful places on earth—conditions greatly to be appreciated after his long, eventful journey. The discovery is soon made that Bogotá possesses a climate that is simply perfect, and a highly educated and accomplished society, that boasts for the capital the appellation of "the Boston of South America." Like Quito, Bogotá is old, and being so far inland and inaccessible, its Thibet-like seclusion for centuries has bred within its higher circles an aristocratic caste somewhat arrogant, but always suave, kindly, and hospitable. In this eddied fragment of the old-world Spain, the old ceremonious forms of address—"Your servant who kisses your hand," and that hospitable assurance, "*Aquí tiene su casa*," with which even the chance acquaintance is made to feel at home, as in his "own house"—do not seem incongruous as in Spanish cities in closer contact with the outer world.

The streets of the city run eastward up the slopes of a wide avenue cut along the sides of the mountain, and are crossed at right angles by others running north and south. The blocks thus formed rise one above another like the benches of a great ampitheater, overshadowed by the peaks



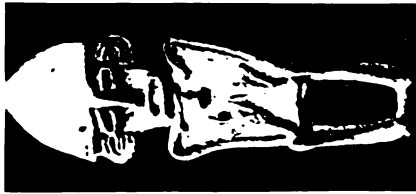
Cathedral, Plaza Bolívar, Bogotá



Calle Real, Bogotá, Colombia



Overlooking Bogotá—the famous *sabana de Bogotá* stretching
away in the distance



Gold figure found
at Lake Guatavita



Lake Guatavita, showing the cut made by Sepulveda, a rich merchant
of Bogotá, who in 1562 attempted to drain the lake in order
to secure the great treasure supposed to exist at the bottom



Gold figure found
at Lake Guatavita



New Presidential Palace, Bogotá, Colombia



San Carlos Palace, Bogotá, Colombia. The window which shows the memorial stone is the one from which Liberator Simon Bolívar escaped from attempted assassination, September 25, 1828



Street in Cartagena, Colombia



Battlemented Wall, Cartagena, Colombia



A *posada* or country inn, on the road to Bogotá, Colombia



The legend of the Gilded Man. Blowing gold dust over the king
after his body had been anointed with balsam



Seminary Park, Guayaquil



Guayaquil seen from San Alejo



Street scene in Guayaquil, Ecuador



Condor of the Andes

Monserate and Guadalupe. On the crests of these peaks stand two massive cathedrals. One wonders why great temples were built in such inaccessible locations, and why, with over thirty more cathedrals and churches in the city, they were needed at all. They can be reached only by pedestrians, and then only after some three hours of hard climbing; no one ever lived near them, and the bleak, icy *paramo* beyond is uninhabitable. Like the cross, however, their presence is objectively effective in this very religious community.

The city is now well lighted by gas and electricity and is beautified by three large plazas and many smaller parks, in nearly all of which the Bogotanos have erected handsome bronze statues to the soldiers and statesmen of the republic. The great central plaza bears the name of Bolívar, and on a high pedestal in its center stands a bronze figure of the Great Liberator, his sad, thoughtful face turned as if in mute reproach towards the old executive mansion, where, for a brief reign, he ruled the destinies of Colombia, Venezuela and Ecuador, then united in his ill-starred Colombian confederation. From a window in that mansion he once leaped, at midnight, to escape the hand of an assassin, raised against him because the people distrusted his rule and permitted themselves to forget his valuable services to the country.

On the north side of the plaza stands the new capitol building, a plain, but well proportioned structure of white granite; on the east is the fine old metropolitan cathedral, and adjoining it, on the same side, is the ancient palace of the Spanish viceroys, now, however, used for shops and offices. Near the western outskirts of the city is the extensive Plaza de los Martiros, so named in commemoration of the patriots executed on its site by the royalist general Morillo. Although beautifully laid out and made into an attractive pleasure ground, it has always been shunned by the people, for it was a veritable Golgotha during the revolu-

tion, and was used as the execution ground until the early sixties when capital punishment was abolished in Colombia. Not a great way from the tragic spot is another noted place now called *Ninguna Parte* (literally "Nowhere"). It is rather a disreputable part of the city in these days, but, when General William Henry Harrison resided there as United States Minister, in 1827, it was a fashionable district. The old house in which he lived is still pointed out, as is the still older, and, if possible, still more dilapidated, house occupied by Baron von Humboldt during his year's sojourn in Bogotá. On the northern side of the little Plaza de las Nieves stands the city's oldest landmark—the house built by Quesada, and the one in which he died—a victim of leprosy.

It would be idle to attempt to enumerate the grand old monasteries and convents of the city; many of them occupy entire squares. Since the political upheaval of 1860, generally known as the "Mosquera Rebellion," these edifices have ceased to be church property. Some are now used as schools or hospitals, others as hotels, armories and barracks; many are now occupied as government offices—the National Mint, the National Military Academy, the Post Office, the War and Navy Departments and the noted Rosario College.

The traveller's descent from the Bogotá *sabana* to the Magdalena on his departure from the country, will store his memory with vistas of grandeur and beauty that will never be effaced, for the Upper Magdalena valley is one of the most beautiful in the world. By the old mule path to Honda, the head of navigation for big steamers on the Magdalena, by way of La Mesa, Tocaime and Jirado, one will be travelling over a route that for centuries was the great thoroughfare for peon or viceroy, and is today practically unchanged in the scenes that make it interesting. But one can now go by rail from Bogotá to Girardot on the Magdalena, some eighty miles above and south of Honda, thence by small steamer to Arrancapluma, where a short railway

trip is made around the Honda Rapids to La Dorada about twenty miles north of and down the river from the town of Honda. At La Dorada the five hundred mile journey northward down the Magdalena to the Caribbean is made in one of the regular steamers that cover this service. The river trip is full of interest for the great stream, nearly as large as the Mississippi, flows with great rapidity throughout its course and has a most varied aspect. For miles it spreads out in a calm, placid sheet of water several miles in width, then whirls over a series of rapids, or forms into whirlpools, or later races through a narrow mountain gorge; and, in consequence of its eccentricities, the channel is constantly changing, to the great inconvenience of pilots.

At Calamar, about seventy-five miles from the mouth, the traveller may exchange the steamer for the railroad to the port of Cartagena, or continue down the Magdalena, now greatly increased in volume by the confluence of the almost equally large river Cauca, to the two important Caribbean ports at the mouth, Barranquilla and Sebanilla. The first part of the trip from Bogotá to Girardot reminds one of the mountain scenery over the Oroya road up into the Andean plateau from Lima. Constantly before him, in the distance, are the lofty frozen peaks of Tolima, San Ruiz and Herveo towering above their fellows in the Central Cordillera. Rising on either side of the Magdalena, the slopes of the two ranges in their lower reaches are dotted with coffee plantations; above them reaching to the altitude of the *paramos*, the mountain sides are thickly overgrown with forests, and down in the river basin, in the hollow of the broad valley, the brilliant green of varied tropical vegetation continues on, past the point where the Central and Western Cordilleras merge in the *llanos*, down to the Caribbean coast plains; here the Magdalena basin spreads out over a vast area of barren, uncultivated waste land.

Barranquilla, Sabanilla and Cartagena are the important commercial centers of the republic on the Caribbean,

the last named being one of the oldest and most interesting ports on the Spanish Main. It was founded early in the seventeenth century and soon became a great commercial and naval center of the Spanish. The grand old city presents a most imposing and romantic appearance, even to-day, with its massive moss-grown buildings, many of them three centuries old, and the tall towers and steeples of the old cathedrals rising above the expanse of red tiled roofs. On either side of the city stand two hoary old fortresses, long since disused, but still in an excellent state of preservation, and encircling the whole is a massive stone wall, antique in form and most venerable in appearance, fully thirty feet in height and many yards in thickness. It was built during the reign of Philip II, and next to the walls of Manila, is the finest relic of old Spanish fortifications extant. The entrances to the spacious harbor are guarded by stone forts of the same period. Beneath the surface of the sea, is the old Bastile of the Inquisition, rendered classic by Charles Kingsley in his "Westward, Ho!"—a grim reminder of the past.

On the desolate stretch of Colombia's Pacific coast there is but one city of importance, Buenaventura. This is the busy exchange that taps the fertile region of the upper Atrato basin, and when the Panama Canal is opened should spring into greater importance along with the other ports of the West Coast, for the hauling distances to Europe and New York will be reduced by more than one hundred per cent. In the interior Colombia possesses many cities of considerable size, ranging from thirty to sixty thousand inhabitants, which are centers for the mining and agricultural districts—Pamplona in the mountains near the Venezuela frontier, Bucaramanga, a little to the west, Mompoz, near the confluence of the Cauca and Magdalena, once a port on the latter river but now, owing to the erratic wanderings of that stream, twenty miles east of it, Medellin, in the Cauca valley; Popayán and Pasto near the head waters of that

river, and La Plata on the other side of the Central Cordillera.

The Hon. John Barrett, Director General of the Pan-American Union, and Hon. William L. Scruggs, both former Ministers of the United States at Bogotá, have written extensively of Colombia's commercial possibilities and predict great strides for the hermit republic. "Colombia," writes Mr. Barrett, "is a wonderland of opportunity. Measured by the standards of other countries it can be said without exaggeration that the Republic of Colombia, in proportion to area and population, is the richest of all in the variety and extent of undeveloped resources, fullest in promise for future growth and reward to mankind." "Colombia," he continues, "is at our very doors; it is nearer to the principal ports of the United States than any other South American country, and yet we have done little to study her internal wealth or to take part in her foreign commerce." The country is only nine hundred and fifty miles away from us; from Cartagena to Tampa, Florida, the distance is less than from New York to St. Louis. The foreign trade of Colombia last year amounted to \$26,000,000, in which the United States participated to the extent of only \$11,000,000.

Mr. Scruggs says in closing his interesting work on Colombia: "Such is the country as nature has made it—picturesque, beautiful and exceedingly rich and varied in undeveloped resources. As yet man has done very little for it, the greater part being still unbroken wilderness. . . . The commercial possibilities of the country are almost incalculable; and the time is probably not very remote when the fact will be more fully realized by the great commercial powers of the world."

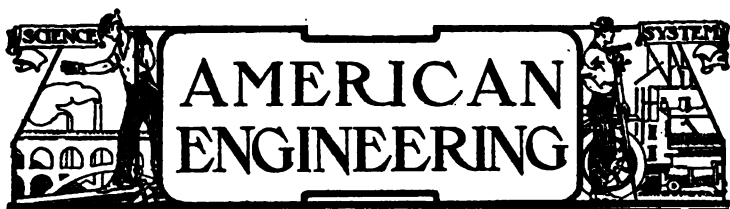
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PRONOUNCING VOCABULARY

Words whose pronunciation is easy or can be found easily or which have been given in previous issues of this Reading Journey are not listed below.

adelantado	ah-day-lahn-tah'-doh	Medellin	May-day-yeen'
Alonso de Ojeda	Ah-ohn'-zoh day	Mesade Herveo	May-sah-day Ayr-vay'-oh
	Oh-hay'-dah	Mompoz	Mohm-pohs'
aqui tiene su casa	ah-kee' tee-ayn'-ay soo	monseratte	Mohn-sayr-rah'-tay
	kah'-sah	Montana	mohn-tahn'-yah
arracha	ahr-rah'-chah	morones	moh-roh'-nays
Arrancapluma	Ahr-rahn-kah-ploo'-mah	Mosquera	Mohs-kay'-rah
Atacames	Ah-tah-kah'-mays	Muzo	Moo'-sah
Atrato	Ah-trah'-toh	Ninguna Parte	Neen-goo'-nah Pahr'-
Bacata	Bah-kah-tah'		tay
balsa	bahl'-sah	Nunez de Balboa	Noon'-yays day Bahl-
Barranquilla	Bahr-rahn-kee'-yah		bob'-ah
Benalcazar	Bay-nahl-kah-zahr'	Oriente	Oh-ray-ayn'-tay
Bogota	Boh-goh-tah'	Oroya	Oh-roh'-yah
Bucaramanga	Boo-kah-rah-mahn'-gah	Pamplona	Pahn-ploh'-nah
Buenaventura	Boo-ay-nah-vayn-too'-		pah-rah'-moh
	rah	paramo	(English, par'-rah-moh)
Calamar	Kah-lah-mahr'	Pasto	Fahs'-toh
Caqueta	Kah-kay-tah'	Patia	Fah'-tee-ah
Cartagena	Kahr-tah-hay'-nah	Plaza de los Martiros	Plah'-zah day lohs
Cauca	Kah'-oo-kah		Mahr-tee'-rohs
Cayapas	Kah-ee-ah'-pahs	Plaza de las Nieves	Plah-zah day lahs
Chimbi	Cheem'-bee		Nee-ay'-vays
chincona	cheen-koh'-nah	ponchos	pohn'-chohs
chuquiragua	choo-kee-rah'-goo-ah	Popayan	Poh-pah-yahn'
Cotopaxi	Koh-toh-pahk'-see	posadas	poh-pah'-dahs
Funza	Foon'-zah	Rodrigo de Bastida	Roh-dree'-goh day
Gallapagos	Gah-yah'-pah-hos		Bahs-tee'-dah
Girardot	Hee-rah'-dot'	sabana	sah'-bah-nah
Goajira	Goh-ah-hee'-rah	Sabanilla	Sah-bah-nee'-yah
Gonzales, Jimenez de	Gohn-zah'-lays Hee-	San Ruiz	Sahn Roo'-ees
Quesada	may'-nays day Kay-	Sangai	Sahn-gah'-ee
	sah'-dah	Sierra de Parija	See-ayr'-rah day
Guadalupe	Gwah-day-loo'-pay		Pah-ree'-hah
Guayas	Gwah'-ee-ahs	Tague	Tah'-guay
Herredia	Ayr-ray-dee'-ah	Tensaquilla	Tayn-sah-kee'-yah
Honda	Ohn'-dah	Tocaima	Toh-kah'-ee-may
Jirado	Hee-rah'-doh	Tolima	Toh-lee'-mah
kapok	kah-pok'	toquilla	toh-kee'-yah
llanos	yah'-nohs	Tunguragua	Toon-goo-rah'-gwah
Magdalena	Mahg-dah-lay'-nah	yucca	yook'-kah
manana	mahn-yah'-nah	Zaruma	Zah-roo'-mah
Manavi	Mah-nah'-vec	Zipa	Zee'-pah



VIII. Reinforced Concrete*

Carl S. Dow

CONCRETE, like electricity, has its mystery. Cement mixed with sand and gravel forms a substance hard as stone when it dries. No one seems to explain how this comes about—books on the chemistry of concrete are conspicuous by their absence.

We may not know how and why the plastic mass of cement and sand hardens into crystals which interlock forming a stone-like mass, but we readily see what concrete is like, we see it in all kinds of industrial buildings, houses, bridges, tanks and even boats, for not only is it used in building barges and scows, but it has actually formed the hull of a small pleasure boat. But that was not American Engineering, it happened in Germany.

The Romans used concrete for walls to be faced with brick, or as a substitute for more expensive building materials. In England, cement got its name "Portland" from a small island off the southern coast. In 1824, a stone mason, Joseph Aspdin of Leeds, discovered the wonderful binding properties of a moistened mixture of earths obtained from that region. His experiments included heating it to lime-kiln heat and grinding to powder. He named it "Portland"

*The first article of this series is entitled "Engineers and Engineering" and appeared in the September, 1911, CHAUTAUQUA. It was followed in October by "The Steam Engine" and in November by "Heating Houses and Public Buildings," in December by "Mechanical Refrigeration," in January, 1912, by "Compressed Air," in February by "The Gasoline Engine," and in March by "Sanitary Engineering."

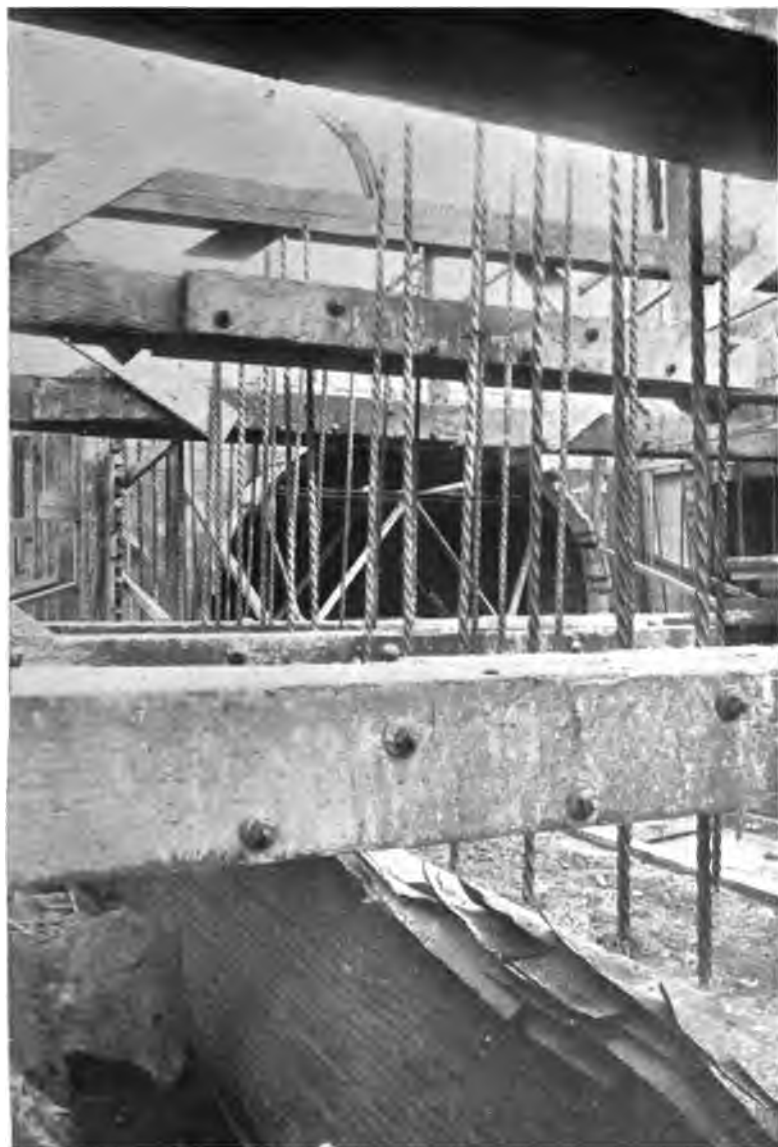
cement because the manufactured stone resembled in texture and color the building stone taken from the small isle of Portland—stone famed as a building material, used in St. Paul's Cathedral and many other buildings in London. The concrete also resembled this wonderful building material in resistance to weather.

America, at first slow in utilizing cement because of an abundance of fine timber, now regards it of the utmost importance. The use of cement in this country has grown so rapidly that the output is enormous—63,000,000 barrels yearly—exceeding the output of any other two countries by several millions of barrels. One authority estimates that a year's output made into concrete would be sufficient to construct a solid highway from New York to Chicago, twenty-five feet wide and one foot thick.

All cement is not Portland cement, although in 1908 more than 52,910,000 barrels was Portland. There is Natural cement—a natural limestone which has been burned in a kiln and ground to powder. And there is Puzzolan cement, made from blast furnace slag, the refuse from making iron. This hot slag is granulated by cold water and when dry is mixed with slaked lime and ground to powder.

Portland cement is a mixture of calcium carbonate (limestone) and silicate of alumina (clay). The limestone is made very dry so that it can be ground to flour-like fineness without clogging the grinding machinery. When dry, it is first ground to the fineness of beach sand and mixed with clay which has also been dried. The mixture, which has been proportioned accurately, is then pulverized to 100 mesh fineness, that is, so fine that it will go through a sieve having 100 meshes per inch.

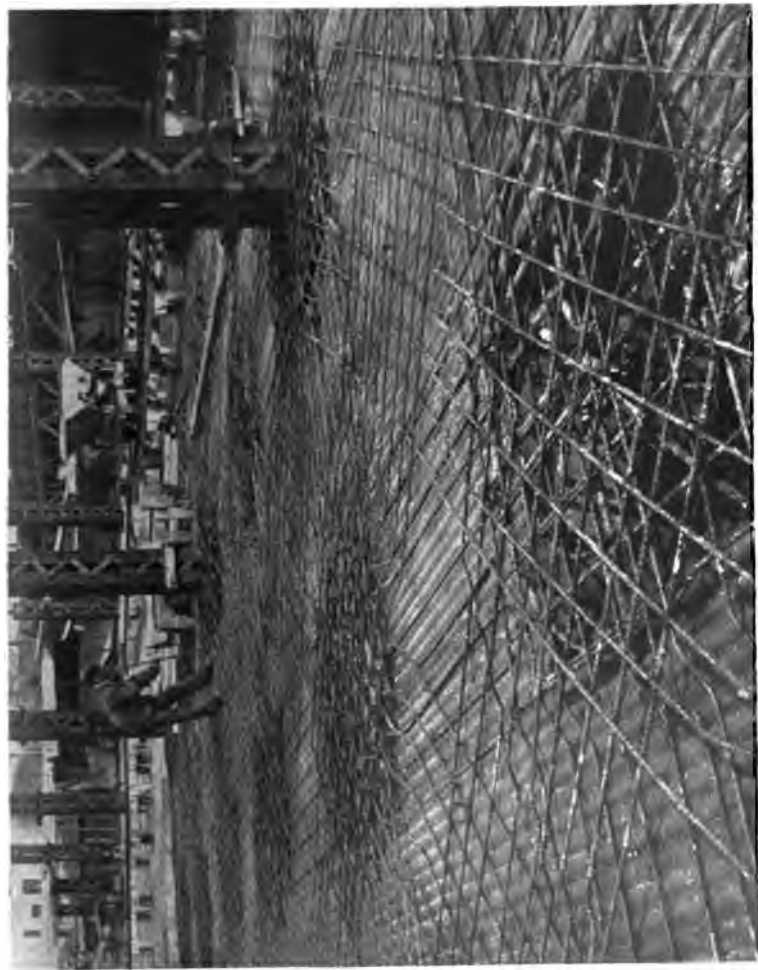
Concrete buildings, whether on the relatively severe lines of industrial buildings, or the more ornamental finish of houses or public buildings, are made according to one of two general systems. In the first, the unit system, the concrete is in the form of blocks held together with cement mortar as are clay bricks. But these units, which are larger



Pennsylvania Tunnel and Terminal Railroad Company's Improvements. Showing twisted square rod reinforcement, and Tuna-loid felt waterproofing in lower right-hand corner



Pacific Mills Print Works, Lawrence, Massachusetts. Showing forms for reinforced columns and some columns finished. In process of construction by Aberthaw Construction Co.



Floor and column head reinforcement, "mushroom" system of flat slab construction. The steel box lattice column comprises the reinforcement in part of the mushroom column



Colonnade which extends around the top of the Harvard Stadium, more than a quarter of a mile in length and twenty feet in width



East wing of Harvard Stadium, completed. Showing the entrances and the steps leading to the colonnade at the top. The lowest seat is seven feet above the ground



Harvard Stadium under construction. The steel beams are in place and a few of the lower seat slabs. Built by the Aberthaw Construction Company



East wing and part of "bowl" of Harvard Stadium under construction by Aberthaw Construction Company. Showing floor of the promenade in the foreground and four of the five rows of columns which support the girders. The fifth row is cast monolithic with the outer wall



Beneath the Stadium. Entrances to sections 27, 28, 29, etc., on the right; mezzanine promenade at the left



Harvard Stadium. Showing inside of seat side of the east wing. 576 feet in length, 420 feet in width. Ground area covered by structure, 120,000 square feet. Field enclosed, 481 feet by 230 feet

than ordinary bricks, have holes or hollows which form air spaces. The other system, by far the most common, is the monolithic system; the entire frame of the building is a solid continuous piece of stone made by putting the concrete in place at the site of the building. The unit system has been followed for ages with various materials, but the monolith is a product of the present brought about by the commercial importance of cement.

Reinforced Concrete is plain concrete having rods of steel imbedded in the plastic mass to give it strength. During construction a large building fairly bristles with the long slim rods sticking out of the partially built walls. But the steel is but a small proportion of the total volume of the mass because of its greater strength. Usually the cross-section of a beam has but one or two per cent of its area made of steel, the rest is concrete, a much cheaper material.

Some people make the error of thinking that steel beams and columns with a thin layer of cement for protection against fire or corrosion is reinforced concrete.

Concrete is made up of cement and aggregates, the aggregates fine and coarse, being the sand and gravel, or broken stone. The spaces between the stones are the "voids" and are filled with sand. The space or voids between the particles of sand are filled with cement. When all these voids are filled, the mixture is ideal; it is strong because the cement binds the sand together, it is economical because the cement is a minimum, and cement is expensive. But the ideal is seldom attained in practice—more cement is used than theoretically necessary to fill the voids in the sand.

The uses to which concrete is put vary so much that it must be mixed in various proportions. To obtain greater strength, the percentage of cement is increased. Concrete is spoken of as 1:2:4 or 1:2½:5, etc. That is, engineers and contractors do not stop to explain the proportions but abbreviate them as above. The numbers refer to cement,

sand, and stone, in this order. 1:2:4 concrete is made up of twice as much sand as cement, and four times as much broken stone as cement. These parts are volume, not weight.

A rich mixture is 1:1½:3 and is used for columns and parts which must stand strain, or must be nearly water-tight.

A standard mixture is 1:2:4.

A medium mixture is 1:2½:5 used for general work, walls, sidewalks, and foundations.

A lean mixture is 1:3:6 for heavy masses, large thick walls.

When a concrete building is put together by the monolithic system, forms are necessary, for the wet concrete is a plastic material which takes the shape of the object in which it is placed. In all concrete construction, the concrete is allowed to stay in the wooden forms until it hardens, often from one to three weeks.

Concrete forms are generally of wood because it can be shaped easily and it is not too expensive. Iron forms give a smoother finish and are more durable, a feature to be considered when the form is to be used many times. The forms are built in a great variety of ways, the contractor's skill at planning and his ingenuity being given opportunity to save both time and money. Green wood gives better results than perfectly dry wood because the dry wood warps out of shape when in contact with the wet concrete. Before erecting the forms, the boards are coated on the side to come next the concrete with oil or soft soap so that the concrete will not stick.

The cement, sand, and crushed stone, which have been thoroughly mixed dry, are then wet with enough water to give the mixture the proper consistency. A mixture which will run off the shovel is called "wet." A damp mixture is called "dry," while a jelly-like consistency, is called "medium." For small work, the ingredients are hand-mixed, shovelled over and over. Large work requires a

machine, called a concrete mixer, which in revolving stirs the cement and aggregates while a stream of water gives the mixture proper consistency. With a good machine, the ingredients are so thoroughly mixed that the result is homogeneous concrete no matter in what order they were introduced.

Usually concrete is mixed in batches rather than continuously. The cement, sand, and gravel are carefully measured and then run into the mixer. From the mixer the plastic mass of concrete is conveyed in barrows to the forms into which it is dumped. If very wet, it settles in place pretty well by itself, but it is customary to tamp it lightly so that it will be compact and in close contact with the layer previously put in.

Concrete without reinforcing steel is strong to support any load, provided it is so placed that it compresses the mass of concrete. In this way concrete is admirably suited to foundations and dams. But concrete has little strength to resist a pull, or tension as it is called. Engineers say that plain concrete is strong in compression and weak in tension.

Perhaps the greatest advantage of concrete over stone is that while being put into forms, steel rods can be imbedded to make up for weakness in tension. Steel is very strong in tension, that is, a great force is required to pull it apart. A rod of steel having a cross-section of one square inch will resist a pull of 60,000 to 100,000 pounds or more, and will show no signs of permanent stretching under about one half of this force.

Steel is the chosen material for reinforcing concrete, not only because of its strength, but also because when heated it expands practically the same amount as does concrete. These two materials are thus used in combination without any tendency toward separation.

The proper combination of steel and concrete, that is, the location, amount, and shape of the steel is a matter of design which involves a consideration of complicated stresses.

In principle, the method and calculation are the same as for steel or wood, but in the case of concrete the strength is variable and its behavior under all conditions is not well enough known to standardize building construction to the extent that steel and wood construction are standardized.

Columns are the most important parts of a building for they support the floors above. If made of plain concrete they would have to be so large as to interfere seriously with the light or with the location of machines in a factory or mill. The insertion of steel rods about three-quarters of an inch in diameter permits smaller columns. These rods, of which there are four or six, are always placed near the corners or sides with loops every foot or so to hold the rods in place while the concrete is being put into the forms. The rods are usually two inches from the surface.

Concrete walls are reinforced lightly to give them stiffness while setting and to prevent shrinkage. Steel rods placed vertically about twelve to twenty-four inches apart will do for four to six inch walls.

Floors, that is, those above ground, are more complicated in construction and admit of a greater variety of design than the walls; the two principal systems being the beam and girder, and the slab. The first consideration is the load each floor must sustain. Office buildings ordinarily carry a load of about one hundred pounds per square foot while double this amount must often be allowed for when machinery is to be installed. Loads up to five hundred pounds per square foot are considered for warehouses. In all such designing, the weight of the concrete floor itself must not be neglected.

The size of beams, girders, and slabs depends largely upon the spacing of the columns; from twelve to twenty feet is usual. Longer spans require very heavy beams and girders, and are therefore less economical.

When a beam or girder supported at each end carries a load, the pull or tension is at the bottom, and the particles of concrete are pulled apart because the bottom of

the beam stretches. Here then is where the steel rods are placed, the steel, strong to resist tension, being located where the pull is greatest. The reverse condition occurs at the top of the beam where it shortens and the particles are pressed together—they are compressed. But concrete is strong to resist compression, as we have said, hence no steel reinforcement is needed. Thus it may be taken as a general condition that the steel is placed as low in a beam or girder as the construction will permit.

It must be borne in mind that the pull is greatest in the middle of the length of a beam and that it decreases toward the supports—for this reason the reinforcing rods may be bent upward at the end and passed horizontally through the beam at the supports.

With the beam and girder construction, the column is enlarged at the top and the ends of the girders laid thereon and held in place by pins passing through holes in both girder and column. This is the construction when the girders are made separately in forms and put in place when hard. In case the girders are to be cast in place, the forms are built up for the columns, then for the girders.

But floors may be made of slabs cast in place, and resting directly on the columns which have been made with enlarged tops. By one method, the column reinforcing is simply turned outward to give greater area at the top. The rectangular or square slab is then made so that the four corners will rest on four columns. When the wooden forms are built, the steel reinforcing is put in place; this consists of about four rods connecting each two adjacent corners and three or four running diagonally, all wired in place. The mass of concrete covers the reinforcing, which as in the case of a girder, is located near the bottom. Slabs are ordinarily three and one-half to five inches in thickness.

There is another flat slab system called the mushroom. When the columns are being built, the steel reinforcing rods are allowed to project considerably above the

top, even more than is necessary to make the enlarged column head. These rods are then spread out radially and wired to circular steel hoops of varying diameter, the whole forming part of the slab reinforcing.

Roofs of reinforced concrete are designed in the same manner as floors, but the loads are taken as about forty pounds per square foot to provide for snow loads, wind pressure, and the weight of the concrete itself.

Concrete structures below surface level must be waterproofed if they extend very far into the ground, for the concrete is not homogeneous, and on hardening small cracks are liable to develop. Even with the greatest care and the employment of only skilled workmen there is always a possibility of imperfections which will let water pass. And then what is to be done? The exterior is practically always inaccessible and patching the interior seldom cures the trouble.

Engineers have tried all kinds of paints, oil, soap, etc., have mixed hydrate of lime and sulphate of alumina with the cement with the hope that in time the carbonate of lime formed by the water passing through the cement would stop up the pores. Neat cement (water and cement without sand or gravel) has been trowelled onto the surface. But the ground water, which is under pressure, tends to push off any interior coating rather than to bind it firmer to the concrete.

For subways, especially such as those in New York under the river or the East Boston tunnel which goes under part of Boston harbor, it has been found necessary to use a shield or envelope which is flexible enough not to fracture in case a crack is developed in the concrete. Such a material for waterproofing is not a coating merely, but a wool felt applied in layers or plies to the outside of the wall, each layer cemented together with a waterproofing compound.

In improvements made at New York and Sunnyside, Long Island, by the Pennsylvania Tunnel and Terminal

Railroad Company 9,000,000 square feet of this sort of waterproofing was used.

For bridges, about six courses of the felt is laid upon the reinforced concrete of the arch and cement or courses of brick placed on it. Provision for draining the roadway, whether railroad or drive, is made by using waterproofed drainage holes at intervals.

The building of a factory, or mill, or school house, is simply the application of reinforced concrete in the form of columns, beams, girders, walls, floors, and roof, and one building is very much like another. Dams and bridge approaches are great masses of concrete so disposed as to give the effect desired. These structures are interesting but not out of the ordinary. Probably the most unusual reinforced concrete structure is the Harvard Stadium. Interesting also because of its location—on Soldiers' field adjacent to the great Metropolitan Park System and connected with Boston and suburban districts by the Charles River boulevard. It was an engineering job to build it—it was an engineering job to design it, to add to rather than detract from the beauty of the parkway.

THE HARVARD STADIUM

Forty thousand people, enough to fill a dozen of our largest theaters, enough to populate a good-sized city, gather in the stadium without crowding and without danger from fire even though smoking is allowed.

Some of the reasons why so expensive an amphitheater was erected have been stated in connection with the park system. Other reasons are summed up by saying that with the old wooden stands a fire engine was a necessary part of every important game; the yearly repair and replacement expense was about \$8,000, the interest on \$200,000 capital; and there was always danger of collapse in spite of the most careful inspection.

Before looking into the construction, some figures should be observed. The stadium is 576 feet long—nearly

an eighth of a mile—and 420 feet wide. In height it is seventy-two feet, as high as many six-story buildings. It required 250,000 cubic feet of concrete. There are thirty-one rows of seats in each of the thirty-seven sections. One of the striking features of this structure is the provision for entrances and exits. Each of the thirty-seven sections has two entrances at different levels; the result of the small sub-division is seen in the quickness with which a late comer can find his seat, and the exceedingly short time required to leave the stadium with a crowd of over 30,000. To accomplish this there are two sets of stairways for each section and back of the upper stairway there is a spacious promenade about twenty feet wide, useful as a main artery for leaving after the game and for recreation between parts of a game. Above this promenade is another, having a roof.

The stadium is a reinforced grandstand of U shape built upon five parallel rows of reinforced concrete columns on which are concrete girders for supporting the steel beams. 1:3:6 concrete was used; Portland cement, sand, and Roxbury pudding stone. On these beams, which are inclined to give the desired slope, the seats are placed. These are concrete slabs.

The columns, which vary in size from fourteen by fourteen inches to twenty-four by thirty-three inches, have steel reinforcement in the form of twisted square bars. The cross-sections were determined by allowing 350 to 400 pounds per square inch as the maximum combined live and dead load.

The girders are massive, reinforced in the usual way, and in the main are straight even on the curve where they form chords of arcs.

The seat slabs are of unusual character. Shaped like the letter "L," each slab forms the seat or tread, and riser. They are about eight feet three inches in length, weigh about 1,200 pounds each and have a half-inch steel rod reinforcement at the base of the riser. Electrically-welded

wire netting five inches on centers runs across the treads and up the riser. These slabs are very strong, the treads are a form of slab construction while the riser forms a joist connecting one steel beam to the next.

The seat slabs were made of cement and stone in the form of crusher dust and poured into a sand mold when of the consistency of cream. There were 4,800 of these slabs, and because of the curves they required ninety-five different patterns.

The importance of strength in these slabs is shown by the methods of testing. First, the engineering department tested them in the laboratory. Next, some slabs were tested to destruction on Soldiers' field by piling bags of cement on them; these tests showed that the slabs would support 12,000 pounds or the weight of nearly one hundred men. Further tests on over one hundred slabs and their setting were made by marching twelve men over them after they were in place. Collected on one slab twelve men jumped up and down in unison to make sure that no failure could occur from the movement of excited crowds.

The outside walls, but four inches thick, are cast monolithic with the columns. The walls are reinforced with one-quarter inch rods.

In this structure are shown the advantages of reinforced concrete construction, not the least of which was speed. Work was begun about the first of July and the seats were practically all in place the latter part of November—a speed of construction impossible with any form of stone or brick unless an exceedingly large number of men were employed

SEARCH AND REVIEW QUESTIONS ON THE REQUIRED READING
WILL BE FOUND IN THE ROUND TABLE SECTION AT THE BACK OF THE
MAGAZINE.

(End of C. L. S. C. Required Reading, Pages 167-243.)



The following extract is from the Colombian romance "Maria" by Jorge Isaacs. The author's father was an English Jew and his mother a Spaniard. Jorge was born in 1843 in Cali in the State of Cauca in Colombia, but lived from early life in Bogotá.

Of "Maria" Thomas A. Janvier says "The essential charm of 'Maria' . . . comes from the absolute knowledge that the author possesses of the life that he describes . . . and his fine literary intuition that enables him wholly to avoid sentimentality, although a most tender and exquisite sentiment animates his story from its beginning to its end. But the side of the story which comes nearest to my own heart . . . is its beautiful and its absolutely truthful portrayal of life in a Spanish-American home."

The quotation is from the translation of "Maria" by Rollo Ogden and is reprinted through the courtesy of Harper & Brothers.

SUMMARY

The hero, Efraín, has been in love with his cousin, Maria, since her childhood, and is to marry her after four years of study in Europe. At the end of a twelvemonth he is summoned from London because of Maria's failing health. He reaches Colombia only after her death. The chapter given here describes a part of Efraín's journey from his landing place at Buenaventura on the Pacific coast to Cali. The river trip is

ON THE DAGUA*

MY good friend knocked at my door at four. I had been waiting for him an hour, all ready to set out. He, Lorenzo, and I took coffee while the boatmen were carrying my luggage to the canoes, and soon after we were all on the beach.

The moon, at the full, was already sinking in the west. As it shone out below the clouds which had been concealing it, it bathed the distant forests, the mangrove-trees on the shores, and the smooth and quiet sea in a flush of tremulous light. . . .

As our canoe pushed off from the shore, he [the collector] shouted, "A very prosperous journey!"

Then he called to the two boatmen, "Cortico! Laurean! take good care of him for me; take as good care of him as if he belonged to me."

"Yes, master," replied the two negroes together.

*From MARIA. A South American romance. By Jorge Isaacs. Copyright, 1890, by Harper and Brothers.

We were about two hundred yards from the beach, but I thought I could distinguish the collector's white bulk, motionless, in the spot where he had taken leave of me. The yellowish gleam of the moon, sometimes hidden, always funereal, lighted us until after we had entered the mouth of the Dagua.

I stood at the door of the rude cabin, above which arched a roof made of reeds and broad leaves thatched together. Lorenzo arranged a sort of bed for me upon some boards in that floating grotto, and sat at my feet with his head upon his knees, apparently taking a nap. Cortico (or, rather, Gregorio, as he had been baptized) was rowing us, muttering, at intervals, a dancing tune. The athletic body of Laurean was sketched, like the profile of a giant, against the last flush of the vanishing moon.

Almost inaudible were the monotonous and hoarse cries of the toads in the mangrove-trees on the shores, and the subdued rush of the current. Nothing else broke in upon that solemn silence which pervades the wilderness in its sleep—a sleep always as deep as man's in the last hours of the night. . .

For reply, he took his place and struck up the first of the following couplets, Cortico replying with the second, and so on to the end of the wild and emotional song:

“Now the moon from us is sinking—

Row on, row on.

Of what's my lonely negress thinking?

Weep on, weep on.

Thy sable night now covers me,

Saint John, Saint John;

Thy night is no more black than she,

No more, no more.

I see the distant lightnings shine

On sea, on shore;

No brighter than those eyes of mine—

Take oar, take oar.”

That chant harmonized dolorously with the nature about us; its deep and plaintive tones were repeated by the slow echoes of those immense forests. . . .

The current of the river began to struggle with our boat. The creaking of the oars in the rowlocks could now be heard. Several times Gregorio gave a stroke with his oar on the side of the canoe, to indicate that we must change shores and cross the stream. Little by little the darkness became deeper. From the direction of the sea the roll of distant thunder reached us. The boatmen were silent. A sound like the echoing flight of a hurricane through the forests could be heard. Great drops of rain began to fall.

I lay down on the bed which Lorenzo had spread out for

me. He was going to have a light, but Gregorio, seeing him strike a match said, "Don't light the candle, boss, for it will dazzle me, and make snakes come aboard."

The rain beat fiercely on the roof of the cabin. All that darkness and quiet was pleasant to me, after the forced intercourse and pretended friendships with all sorts of people during my journey. The sweetest memories, and the gloomiest forebodings, strove for the possession of my heart to encourage or sadden it. Five days more would be enough to bring me where I could hold her in my arms again, to give back to her that life of which my absence had robbed her. My voice, my caresses, my eyes, which had been able to move her so powerfully, would they not be able to win her back from grief and death? My memory ran over what she said in her last letter: "The news of your return has been enough to give me new strength. . . I cannot die and leave you alone forever."

Before my imagination rose my father's house in the midst of its green hills, shaded by the aged willows, garlanded with roses, lighted up by the splendor of the rising sun. Maria's garments rustled near me. It was the breeze of the Zabaletas that stirred my hair. I was breathing the perfumes of Maria's flowers. The wilderness, with its odors and its whispers, was an accomplice in the delicious illusion.

The canoe came to a stop on a beach of the left bank.

"What is it?" I asked Lorenzo.

"We are at Arenal."

"Holloa! A guard! Smugglers are passing!" shouted Cortico.

"Halt!" answered a man, who must have been in ambush, as his voice came from very near the bank.

Both the boatmen burst into an uproarious laugh. . . .

Lorenzo had lighted the candle, and the chief entered the cabin, giving, as he passed, a resounding clap upon the negro smuggler's back, in token of affection. After giving me a frank but respectful salute, he set about examining our safe-conduct, while Laurean and Gregorio, in their breech-clouts, stood, smiling, at the entrance to the cabin.

The first shout of Gregorio had aroused the whole post. Two more guards, with sleepy faces, and armed with carbines, as was also the one who had watched, hidden under the bushes, arrived in time for a farewell drink. Lorenzo's great horn held enough for all.

The rain had ceased, and the dawn was coming on. Amid good-byes and cutting jokes, exchanged between my boatmen

and the guards, and set off with something more than horse-laughs, we continued our journey.

Our progress became increasingly difficult. It was almost ten when we reached Calle-larga. There was a hut on the left bank, built, as are all along the river, on thick piles of *lignum-vite*—a wood, as is well known, that hardens under the action of water. In this way the occupants are free from floods, and on less familiar terms with vipers, whose number and variety are the terror and affliction of travellers.

Lorenzo went with the boatmen to prepare our breakfast in the tiny house. Meanwhile, I stayed in the canoe and made ready to take a bath in the transparent waters of the river. But I had not reckoned with the mosquitoes, although their poisonous bites are enough to make one remember them. They tortured me at will, making my bath lose the half of its Oriental luxury. The color and other conditions of skin possessed by the negroes are undoubtedly their defence against these hungry and persistent enemies. I noticed afterwards that my boatmen did not seem aware of their existence.

Lorenzo brought my breakfast to the canoe. Gregorio helped him. The fellow set up to be an excellent cook, and promised me a savory dish for the next day.

We were due at San Cipriano in the afternoon, and the boatmen did not need to be urged to go on, as the collector's good wine was doing its work with them.

The sun did not belie its summer reputation.

When the shores would permit of it, Lorenzo and I walked short distances along the banks—or *beached* it, as they call it. We did this partly to rest ourselves, and partly to lighten the canoe in perilous stretches of the river. At such times, however, the fear of running upon a *guascama*, or of having a black *chouta* dart upon us, made us walk through the brush more with our eyes than our feet.

It was needless to ask if Laurean and Gregorio were amateur doctors, for there is scarcely a boatman that is not, and that does not carry with him fangs of many kinds of vipers, and antidotes for their bites. But this is hardly enough to calm a traveller, as it is well known that these remedies are without effect, and that one who has been bitten dies after a few hours, sweating blood, and in fearful agony.

We arrived at San Cipriano. On the right bank, and in the angle formed by the river that gives its name to the place, and the Dagua, was the house, raised on piles in the midst of a leafy

banana orchard. We had not yet leaped out on the shore when Gregorio shouted: "ñ'a Rufina! Here I come!"

Immediately afterwards he added, "Where did you catch this old girl?"

"Good-afternoon, 'ño' Gregorio," replied a young negress, coming out to the corridor. . . .

Laurean said good-afternoon to the mistress of the house, and then relapsed into his usual silence.

While the boatmen and Lorenzo were getting the things out of the canoe, I was looking at the thing which Gregorio had called the "old girl." It was a snake as thick as a stout arm, about three yards long, with a corrugated back of the color of dried leaves with black spots. The belly looked like a marble mosaic. The head was enormous, and the mouth was as broad as the whole head; in it showed fangs like cat's claws. She was fastened by the neck to one of the piles of the landing, and her tail was in the water.

"Saint Paul!" exclaimed Lorenzo, as he saw what I was gazing at, "what a monster!"

Rufina, who had come down to greet me, remarked with laughter that they had sometimes killed larger ones.

"Where did they find this one?" I asked.

"On the shore, my master, there in the *chípero*," said she, pointing to a leafy tree about thirty yards away.

"When?"

"Early in the morning, when my brother was going away, he found her hanging on that tree, and he brought her in so as to get the antidote. Her mate was not there, but I saw him this morning, and my brother will catch him to-morrow."

Bibiano, the father of the young negress, who was a boatman more than fifty years old, already laid aside by rheumatism, came out to welcome me, hat in hand, and leaning upon a thick cane. His pantaloons were of yellow baize, and he wore a blue striped shirt outside them.

My hammock was soon slung. Lying in it, I looked at the distant, untrodden mountains, lighted up by the last light of the afternoon, and watched the waters of the Dagua flow by, blue, green, and gold, under the sun's touch.

The boatmen, with their trousers now on, gossiped with Rufina. Lorenzo brought in some of his provisions to go with the stew which Bibiano's daughter was making ready for us, and then lay down quietly in the darkest corner of the room.

It was almost night when we heard cries on the river. Lor-

enzo ran down hurriedly. He soon came back saying that it was the mail-boat going up, and that he had been told my luggage was behind at Mondomo.

Soon the night surrounded us with all its American splendor. Why is it that nights in Cauca, in London, on the high seas, were never so majestically melancholy as that one?

At eight we were all settled for sleep. Lorenzo arranged everything for me with an almost maternal care, and then went to lie down in his own hammock.

"Little father," called out Rufina from her room, speaking to Bibiano, who was sleeping with us in the main room—"little father, just hear warty-back singing out on the river!"

In fact one could hear in that direction something like the clucking of an enormous hen.

"Tell 'ño' Laurean," went on the girl, "to go by there carefully in the morning."

The Vesper Hour*

IMMORTALITY

Charles Edward Jefferson

Pastor of the Broadway Tabernacle, New York City.

THE question of life after death has appealed to thoughtful people in every age. But to no generation more than to our own has this momentous subject offered so many considerations worthy of careful study. Aside from the purely Christian convictions which are sufficient for many, the wonderful advance in human knowledge has liberated us from many limitations of thought now clearly seen to be out-grown obstacles, and opened new avenues of approach to this most appealing of all subjects. The little volume by Rev. Charles E. Jefferson, from which by kind permission of his publishers, Messrs. Houghton, Mifflin Company, the following extracts are taken, is one which contains far more of suggestion than even these few sentences can set forth. The three lectures which it includes were given at Leland Stanford Junior University in February, 1911, on the foundation known as the Raymond F. West Memorial

*The Vesper Hour continues throughout the year the ministries of the Chautauqua Sunday Vesper Service.

lectures on Immortality, Human Conduct and Human Destiny. By means of this gift the university is enabled to make the untimely death of one of its students a potent force in the lives of others.

Like all the great questions concerning the ultimate realities and issues, the question of Immortality has two sides. There are facts which point to the soul's survival and there are facts which point the other way. Both sets of facts must be faced and pondered. There are evidences that death ends all, and there are evidences that death is only a new beginning. Both kinds of evidence must be scrutinized and rated. There are inferences drawn from what we know that the soul dies at death, and there are other inferences deduced from the same knowledge that the soul lives forever. The question is, which group of deductions is on the whole most solidly sustained. It is a question for the reason, and the man who would deal fairly with it must bring to the discussion of it the unspent energy of all his powers.

. . . . Man as we see and know him decays and disappears. His senses, one by one, fall into ruin, his body is dissolved, and the elements of it are caught up by Nature and put to other uses. What happens to the body apparently happens to the immaterial portion of man's being. The mind as well as the body is subject to decay. One by one the psychical powers disintegrate before our eyes. Memory crumbles, imagination falls down and dies, judgment, reason, will, all the faculties which give man distinction and constitute his glory, succumb to an enemy too strong for them, and so far as our eyes can carry us the soul is only a bundle tied together by a cord of flesh, the bundle falling apart as soon as the cord is loosened or destroyed. The energies which form the body separate and go their ways, never to be reunited. Our faculties enable us to trace the process, and the goal cannot be disputed. The inference is that the energies which make up the soul also disintegrate, and flow back into the great cosmos from which they came. The silence of the grave is ominous. No voices have ever come from it. Science has perfected her instruments of hearing to a miraculous degree of sensitiveness, but there are no perceptible vibrations from the tomb. The thickness of the veil which separates the world of the living from the world of the dead is also significant. No light has ever shone through it. No form has ever been descried on the other side. Science has developed her instruments of seeing to a perfection which has almost converted men into gods, but there are no discoverable light vibrations from the dark kingdom beyond the grave. The silence of the dead is a fact that

chills and mystifies. In the words of Carlyle: "Thousands of generations, all as noisy as our own, have been swallowed up of time, and there remains no wreck of them any more, and Pleiades, and Arcturus, and Orion, and Sirius, are still shining in their courses, clear and young, as when the shepherd first noted them on the plains of Shinar."

But appearances are often deceiving. We cannot always believe our eyes. We see the sun rolling down the western sky. The astronomer corrects our vision by his reasoned calculations. We see the earth standing still. No one of our senses can detect a trace of movement. But science assures us that the earth is flying through space at the rate of nineteen miles a second, and we accept the revelation because it is founded on data which satisfy the reason. Every sensible man prefers to follow reason rather than his eyes. The question of Immortality is a problem for the reason. It cannot be settled by the eye. There are problems forever beyond the reach of the optic nerve.

We cannot walk by sight either in science or in religion. Many realities are admitted by science which science cannot see. She believes with all her mind and heart in a world that is super-sensible. She believes in colors which the eye has never seen, in sounds which the ear has never heard, in an ether which man can never hope either to hear or to see or to feel, in movements which cannot be detected, and in flaming suns which the keenest-eyed of all the telescopes can never expect to find. Science does not limit herself to existences which she can see or hear or handle. She willingly assumes whatever is necessary to account for the phenomena which spread themselves out in the field of her vision.

The argument from silence is always a dubious one. Silence is a precarious ground on which to build stable conclusions. The unseen world is indeed silent, but it may be that we have at present no faculties to cognize the voices of that world. If there are even physical vibrations too fine to be caught by our eye or our ear or by the most delicate of extant inventions, it is not difficult to believe in the existence of spiritual beings with whom our dull minds cannot at present hold conscious communion. It may be that the dead have taken on a form which cannot report itself to any of the senses with which we are at present endowed. Our senses are wonderful, but they have narrow limitations, and they carry us only a little way into the all-encircling mystery: It is possible that while it is not best for us at the present stage of human development to hold communications with the dead, there may come a time, however, when latent powers now sleeping in us will be able to see and hear the things which so many

generations have desired to hear and see and have not been able. The senses, then, cannot be allowed to speak the final word on this great question. If the movements of the solid earth beneath our feet cannot report themselves to our consciousness, let us not be surprised at our ignorance of the movements of a world in which the dead live, if they live at all, set free from the physical organism by which it was possible for us to come into communion with them here.

Another fact which must be faced is the difficulty which the imagination finds in conceiving any such existence as that which the doctrine of Immortality involves. There are certain formidable obstructions presented to the picturing faculty of the mind, and these stumbling-blocks have a tendency to render the doctrine if not incredible, at least difficult to believe. If the dead are indeed alive, in what form do they exist? They are separated from the body, and a disembodied spirit is inconceivable. . . .

But the Imagination, like all the other faculties of the mind, is not infallible, and is often tempted to put on airs. So regal are her powers that she readily imposes on us, and all the resources of the critical reason are necessary to hold her in her place. It is not true that the unpicturable is impossible and that what cannot be visualized must be rejected as incredible. The powers of the imagination are limited, and there are wide domains into which she is not allowed to go. She cannot picture a thought, nor draw the outline of an emotion, nor form the image of a purpose. All the contents of consciousness are unpicturable. We can think them, but we cannot paint them. The soul itself has never sat for its portrait. There is no image of it in the heavens above or in the earth beneath or in the waters under the earth. The imagination has never traced the outline of the human spirit. If it is impossible for the imagination to picture the soul in this world, it is not surprising that it cannot picture it in the other. No one can picture the soul in the body, and therefore it need not frighten us to discover that no one can picture the soul out of the body. . . .

A third fact still more daunting is that thought is dependent on the brain. Human consciousness, so far as we know it, is a function of the gray matter of an organ lodged within the skull. There are no mental phenomena in this world independent of physical organization. Every phenomenon in consciousness is attained by a corresponding movement in the cerebral convolutions. This is not theory, but demonstrated fact. It is one of the cardinal facts with which physiological psychology is at work. It has been found that forms of thinking are specialized, and that each kind

of thinking has its own separate field in the brain. Injury inflicted upon any one of these brain areas works havoc with the particular form of consciousness associated with that area. Modifying the structure of the brain cells by an instrument or by drugs produces transformations in the mind, metamorphoses in character. Destruction of any piece of the apparatus involves the loss of one or the other of the mental operations. The total destruction of the brain destroys consciousness altogether. The conclusion is certainly natural, and would seem to be inevitable, that the brain is an organ upon which the soul depends. The salivary glands secrete saliva, the liver secretes bile, so does the brain produce that curious product known as consciousness. . . . The functional dependence of consciousness on physical organization is the most startling fact which physiological science has brought to the attention of our age. No other fact seems to have such an immediate bearing upon the whole problem of the soul's future as this one. . . .

. . . . But right here care must be exercised to keep unwarranted suppositions from stealing in. Conjectures and philosophizings have a curious fashion of leaking in around every well-established fact. We must not forget that there are different kinds of dependence and various types of functions, and whether or not the soul ceases to exist when the brain is dissolved, depends upon the type of function and the kind of dependence represented in the brain. We know that for every molecular activity there is a certain change of consciousness, but we do not know that the one is created by the other. They are concurrent phenomema, but their relationship still lies completely in the dark. It is not proved that molecular vibrations are converted into consciousness or that chemical activities in the brain cells are manufactured into purpose, thought, or love. There is nothing in mental phenomena like anything existing in the body. They belong to another order of existences; and to say that a pinch of gray matter has the capacity to originate an emotion or idea is to assert as fact more than anybody knows. If the brain generates thought as the steam engine generates steam, then the destruction of the body means the ending of the soul.

But science has as yet discovered nothing to prove that brain and consciousness are thus connected. It may be that the soul is to the brain what the engineer is to the engine, and that the soul uses the brain as a locomotive to carry it along the track of its thought. It is conceivable that the soul is not music, but the musician, and that the brain is the instrument on which the soul makes its music, the harp on which the harper is playing, the pianoforte on which the pianist is finding self-expression, the

cornet or trumpet through which the musician is blowing spiritual melodies. The harper is dependent, it is true, on his harp, but he survives the breaking of the harp strings; It is not denied that in this earthly life thought in its human form is dependent on the brain, and that without a brain man on earth can do no thinking; but if the brain is only the instrument on which the soul plays its mental and emotional compositions, it is open for us to believe that when the present instrument is worn out another will be provided. A universe which is ingenious enough to locate in the skull a mechanism so marvelous as the human brain, may be trusted to construct an instrument still more wonderful to take the place of the one which death has broken to pieces. Physiological psychology knows nothing which overturns the doctrine of the life everlasting. . . .

. . . . Another fact is not without influence in shaping the conclusions of men in regard to the fate of the soul. The expansion of the universe, as beheld through the eye of modern science, compels man to see himself in a new light. . . .

But if modern science has enlarged our conception of the physical universe, it has also widened our conception of man. If the outward horizon has been receding, the inner horizon has not remained where it was. There are widening horizons in man as well as in Nature. Man has increased in stature with every increase of the world which he is bringing more and more under his sway. He is greater than any of the worlds which he has discovered. The astronomic bodies are huge, but he is greater than they; for, as Pascal long ago remarked, should they fall on him he would be conscious of their fall. Science has removed the earth from the central position given it by the Ptolemaic astronomy, but man still retains the central place granted him by the old story in Genesis. Genesis and science agree in placing man at the top of creation, in laying the physical world at his feet waiting for him to subdue it, in making the animal creation look into his face, knowing that its fate is to be determined by his will. Enemies which baffled the skill and the power of countless generations now lie dead at his feet, slain like so many serpents by the spell of his wizardry. Pestilence and famine and diseases which scouraged millions to their grave slink away from him like guilty things afraid.

And all this, it is evident, is only the beginning. Man is as yet a child. He can only walk. What will he do when he is old enough to run? He is yet in the early morning. What may be expected of him at noon? In the glowing hour of each new achievement, a voice keeps whispering to him: "You shall

'o greater things than these!" He himself is the wonder of wonders. Physiological science has analyzed his body, and her conclusion is that he is fearfully and wonderfully made. Psychology is at work upon his mind, and his mind is discovered to be far more wonderful than his body. Psychology has been rewritten as well as biology and chemistry. Personality has disclosed mysteries as great as any found amid the constellations. Under the eye of science the human self has become increasingly complex and wonderful. We have not yet groped our way to its outer boundaries. . . . There are in human nature deep-lying capacities whose character is as yet only dimly known, and whose future development may usher in ages of marvels which will cast into commonplace the century which we call wonderful. This is not a time for putting one's mouth in the dust, sobbing with despairful heart: "What is man?" It is a time to stand upon one's feet and exclaim with a more jubilant accent and an augmented assurance:

"Thou hast created him a little lower than God,
And hast crowned him with glory and honor."

It is not conceit, but sober sense, which leads to the surmise that gifts so wonderful cannot find full scope for their appointed exercise within the narrow limits of this earthly life, and that death is only a liberator letting life out to its completion.





APRIL AND MAY

April with dropping rain,
Willows and lilacs bring again,
The whistle of returning birds,
And trumpet-lowing of the herds;
The scarlet maple-keys betray
What potent blood hath modest May;
What fiery force the earth renews,
The wealth of form, the flush of hues;
What Joy in rosy waves outpoured,
Flows from the heart of Love, the Lord.

—*Ralph Waldo Emerson.*



MORE TABLETS FOR THE HALL OF PHILOSOPHY

Every year adds a new interest to the beautiful Hall of Philosophy as the classes dedicate their tablets and the ties which bind the C. L. S. C. classes to the Hall are strengthened. The Progressives of '86, the Shakespeare, 1912, and the George Washington Class of 1907, added three new tablets last summer. This year several more are promised.

1892 wishes to place its tablet this season on its twentieth anniversary. Ten years ago at its decennial the class wanted to raise a fund for some appropriate share in the Aula Christi as Mrs. John H. Vincent was a member of this class and the '92s were particularly anxious to show their good will to the building which was the realization of one of Bishop Vincent's most cherished dreams. The money so contributed is drawing interest in the Institution Bank

until the plans for the decoration of the Aula Christi are fully developed. Meanwhile many were eager to have the Class tablet in the Hall of Philosophy placed this year and started a fund which reached the sum of forty dollars before the season was over. The whole amount needed is one hundred dollars, so '92 is reminded of the hope of the secretary that she may hear from many classmates. When on the evening before Recognition Day the Athenian watch-fires lend their flaring illumination to the Hall, and the lights and shadows play over the familiar columns, the varied colors and designs of the different classes make a scheme of decoration which adds to the Hall rich suggestions of the years long gone. Mrs. Lilian B. Clark of Andover, N. Y., is secretary and treasurer of the Class and will welcome class letters suggesting names of '92s whom she may reach with news of the latest in class anniversaries.

1903 has quite set its heart upon achieving its tablet in 1912. It is not a notable anniversary, the ninth, but class enthusiasm has been cumulative for some time and the result is the netting of a sum which brings the class within twenty-four dollars of the goal. The present year has the reputation of being a bad one for financial ventures but Chautauquans seem always to have a fund tucked away which can be drawn on for class purposes. "Many a mickle makes a muckle" and these always seem to assure achievement when mated to class enthusiasm. The president, Mrs. Alice M. Hemmenway, has firm faith in 1903's belief in the "permanent" and reminds her classmates that the chairman of the tablet committee is Miss Evelyn Dewey, 20 Spring Street, East Orange, N. J.



THE FIELD SECRETARY IN CALIFORNIA

Among Miss Hamilton's Pacific Coast adventures was a most charming experience at the Friday Morning Club at Los Angeles where she spoke at a "luncheon" and received the Chautauqua Salute. Probably there are few noteworthy

clubs which do not count members who have at some time been readers of the C. L. S. C., for the thoughtful, enthusiastic, eager women of this country who have been leaders in club work, were many of them the type of people who naturally reached out for Chautauqua's help in the early days of the movement. The ninety-second birthday of the widely known Mrs. Severance, called the "Mother of Woman's Clubs," occurred just at the time of Miss Hamilton's visit. She sent a brief greeting to the club reminding them that "Organized Womanhood" finds nothing impossible. "Nevertheless," she concluded, "we must rank father with the mother—two hearts that beat as one in human love and for human welfare." True it is that this sentiment has been Chautauqua's insistent motto for a generation past, a culture which binds the home together by an educational plan belonging as truly to the father as to the mother, to parents as to children. In California, now regarded by many as so "advanced" a state, Chautauqua men and women have studied side by side these thirty years.



STILL TIME TO BE A MEMBER OF 1915

The Winfield, Kansas, *Chautauqua News* is enthusiastic over the fact that some fifty members of the Jane Addams, or 1915 Class, are to be found in the territory contiguous to Winfield. "If each one of the 1915s would secure one new reader for the new year, what a class we would have at the Assembly in 1915." These readers remind any circle without 1915 members that they may still gather in a few who can catch up and so have the pleasure of graduating with this class in 1915. Independent readers can be secured who can do the reading easily, even if they cannot compass a circle. Why not have a Spring Rally and invite people whom you think may be won for next year and show them how easily they may save a year?



Lake Street to Chautauqua Park, Big Stone City, South Dakota



Tent at left is Round Table headquarters at the Kokomo (Indiana) Assembly



Lake at Lichfield-Hillsboro (Illinois) Chautauqua



Sunny Slope Cottage Circle, Blue Rapids, Kansas



Chautauqua Assembly, Blue Rapids, Kansas



Aloha C. L. S. C. of San Diego, California. Picture taken in the park where the 1915 celebration is to be held



Public Library, Coudersport, Pennsylvania. In this building the S. H. G. has furnished a corner with rug, table, and chairs. It is a quiet spot in which to do reference work

87's TWENTY-FIFTH ANNIVERSARY

We are assured by the secretary of '87 that interest is developing "to a white heat" in '87 affairs. Two hundred and forty-seven of the class have responded to class announcements and all are eager to be at Chautauqua this summer. As the secretary, Miss Teal, anticipates, there are likely to be many "Pansy blossoms at Chautauqua in 1912." The dates for the special anniversary exercises of '87 are arranged for August 9 to 19. This will enable every '87 to be present for the days covering the Baccalaureate Sunday when Bishop Vincent preaches the sermon to the graduating class and to all other graduates also, and it will include the seventeenth which will be the special day for '87's reunion.

One '87 writes from California: "Though in my seventy-sixth year, the lessons I learned and the inspiration I received from those readings and the encouraging words from Dr. Vincent (long may he live) have helped keep me young in heart and in touch with the great intellectual forces of the world. I treasure the memories of Chautauqua and occasionally with a glad heart point to the two diplomas hanging on our walls, those of my youngest son and myself. Three sons read with us—one until his death—he was shot while protecting his employer's property. The second read two years and then went to college, and my oldest son read most of the course with the Class of '83 but died before the course was finished. I passed the arches at Long Beach Assembly."



CHANCELLOR VINCENT'S EIGHTIETH BIRTHDAY

The June number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be a *Vincent Anniversary Number*, and will contain an account of the Memory Box sent to him on February 23, together with his beautiful letter of acknowledgment, a history of his life work in its various aspects, selections from his writings, and tributes from appreciative admirers.

HO! FOR SHAKESPEARE THIS SUMMER—1912

Many of the Shakespeare Class are already laying plans for going to Chautauqua this summer, and many others are intending to rally at other Chautauquas.

Here is a suggestion: let every member make a point of reading one Shakespeare play between now and summer. Read and reread it till you feel as if it were your play, note its good quotations, study the traits of its characters, get yourself into the spirit of the time when it was played on the Shakespearean stage—in short grow enthusiastic over it. Do you see how such a plan will fit in with your summer outing, what a good time you will have discussing plays at class meetings, what chances it will offer for cosy group gatherings, how interesting schemes may grow out of them all? Come to your Chautauqua full of the fervor of a real Shakespearean and make the graduation of your class like unto no other.

**MAGAZINE CLASS**

The graduate circle of Urbana, Illinois, has been devoting itself this year to a thorough study of the CHAUTAUQUAN and nothing in the magazine has escaped the attention of the keen-eyed members of the Hall in the Grove. Current events, the regular series, the supplementary articles, the Vesper Hour and the Library Shelf all are served upon the table of the literary epicures. The idea is excellent for graduate circles who happen to want to take a year off from the regular reading which most of the graduate circles still keep up.

**FULL OF RESOURCE**

The Brockton Progressives are not to be downed by a small matter like a blizzard. When one visited the town this last winter and it became evident that the circle could not hold its scheduled meeting it was arranged by telephone that the members should come together in neighborhood

groups. In this way the lesson was gone through carefully by every member almost as if the weather were behaving itself with becoming Massachusetts gentleness.



LOCAL HISTORY

The Rowley (Massachusetts) Chautauqua Circle has been having an opportunity to learn something of town history through the medium of a paper read before it by a local historian. The meeting was thrown open to the public.



CHAUTAUQUA TEAS

The town of Monongahela, Pennsylvania, has two C. L. S. C. Circles, and they have adopted the pleasant custom of having an occasional joint meeting at which tea is served after the mental refreshment of the afternoon has been disposed of. The plan provides a happy way of uniting Chautauqua interests with the social element whose value should never be overlooked.



A CELEBRATION OF BISHOP VINCENT'S BIRTHDAY

The Chautauquans of Greenfield, Indiana, celebrated Bishop Vincent's birthday in a most effective way. They made use of the program given in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, but what is more they made the meeting an occasion for the formation of a Chautauqua Society of the Hall in the Grove. We shall have more to say later on this point.

The idea is peculiarly fortunate. It means a tribute to Bishop Vincent like no other. The foundation of a permanent organization to perpetuate the influence of Chautauqua is the finest tribute that can be paid to the man who initiated the plan of popular education which is today as effective as it was thirty-three years ago. Conditions change, organizations multiply but the essential needs of the human heart are not radically changed, and the C. L. S. C. is the most practical means yet devised for helping to meet the desire for culture latent in every intelligent American.

Verses Worth Memorizing

'A MORNING THOUGHT*

What if some morning, when the stars were paling,
And the dawn whitened, and the east was clear,
Strange peace and rest fell on me from the presence
Of a benignant spirit standing near;

And I should tell him, as he stood beside me:—
“This is our earth—most friendly earth, and fair;
Daily its sea and shore through sun and shadow
Faithful it turns, robed in its azure air;

“There is blest living here, loving and serving,
And quest of truth, and serene friendships dear:
But stay not, Spirit! Earth has one destroyer—
His name is Death: flee, lest he find thee here!”

And what if then, while the still morning brightened,
And freshened in the elm the summer's breath,
Should gravely smile on me the gentle angel,
And take my hand and say, “My name is Death?”

SERVICE

Fret not that the day is gone,
And thy task is still undone.
'Twas not thine, it seems, at all:
Near to thee it chanced to fall,
Close enough to stir thy brain,
And to vex thy heart in vain.
Somewhere, in a nook forlorn,
Yesterday a babe was born:
He shall do thy waiting task;
All thy questions he shall ask,

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'And the answers will be given,
 Whispered lightly out of heaven.
 His shall be no stumbling feet,
 Falling where they should be fleet;
 He shall hold no broken clue;
 Friends shall unto him be true;
 Men shall love him; falsehood's aim
 Shall not shatter his good name.
 Day shall serve his arm with light,
 Slumber soothe him all the night;
 Summer's peace and winter's storm
 Help him all his will perform.
 'Tis enough of joy for thee
 His high service to foresee.

—Edward Rowland Sill.



A leaflet of suggestive programs for special days will be mailed from the Extension Office, Chautauqua, N. Y., on receipt of five cents. The program for Shakespeare's birthday, April 23, is especially rich.



C. L. S. C. MOTTOES

"We study the Word and the Works of God."
"Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."
"Never be Discouraged."



C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS

OPENING DAY—October 1.	SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
BRYANT DAY—November 3.	INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY—May 18.
SPECIAL SUNDAY — November, second Sunday.	SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.	INAUGURATION DAY — August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
COLLEGE DAY — January, last Thursday.	ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.	RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.	
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.	
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.	
ADDISON DAY—May 1.	

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR MAY

FIRST WEEK—APRIL 29-MAY 6

"Our Social Problems" (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, "As We See Ourselves," VIII.)

"Reinforced Concrete Construction" (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, "American Engineering," VIII.)

SECOND WEEK—MAY 6-13

"Tolstoyism;" "Public Activities and Investigations" (Addams, Chapters XII, XIII.)

THIRD WEEK—MAY 13-20

"Civic Co-operation;" "Hull-House Activities" (Addams, Chapters XIV, XV, XVI.)

FOURTH WEEK—MAY 20-27

"Echoes of the Russian Revolution;" "Socialized Education" (Addams, Chapters XVII, XVIII.)

"Ecuador and Colombia" (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, "Reading Journey through South America," VIII.)



SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES

APRIL 29-MAY 6

1. *Paper*. "The Social Problems of Our Own Locality and How We Are Trying to Meet Them."
2. *Book Reviews*. "The Workers East;" "The Workers West," by Walter Wyckoff.
3. *Talk*. "Social Problems in Fiction," illustrated by readings. (Suggestive stories are "The Breadwinners" and "Democracy," both anonymous; "Coeur d'Alène," by Foote; "A Web of Gold," by Woods; "The Portion of Labour," by Wilkins; "The Stillwater Tragedy," by Aldrich; "A Modern Instance," by Howells; "Philip and His Wife," by Deland; "Tess," by Hardy.)
4. *Roll Call*. "Local Examples of the Use of Concrete."
5. *Summary* of "The Winning of Barbara Worth," by Wright or "The Chosen Valley," by Foote. (Both are irrigation stories.)

MAY 6-13

1. *Biographical Sketch*. "Tolstoy."
2. *Summary* of "My Religion" or "What to Do," by Tolstoy.
3. *Recitation*. "Tolstoy;" poem by Maurice Hewlett in *Fortnightly* for December 31, 1910 or "Tolstoy," poem by Stephen Phillips in *Living Age* for February 4, 1911.
4. *Reading* from "The World of Chance," by Howells.
5. *Book Review*. "The Gospel of Wealth," by Andrew Carnegie.
6. *Roll Call*. "Tolstoy's Literary Work."
7. *Reading* from "Races and Immigrants in America," by John R. Commons.

MAY 13-20

1. *Talk*. "The Doukhobors" ("Doukhobors and their Future in British Columbia" in *Review of Reviews*, September, 1911.)
2. *Symposium*. "Child Labor" (see references under Child Labor in "Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature.")

3. *Book Review*. "English Social Movements," by Wood.
 4. *Discussion*. "What we can do to help the Juvenile Court."
 5. *Talk*. "Music School Settlements" (see "David Mannes," by Leupp in *American Magazine* for August, 1911; "Democratizing Music in Boston," by Wilhelm in *World Today* for July, 1911; "Music More Sought than Bread" in *World's Work* for March, 1911; "Music School Settlements" in the *Outlook* for June 3, 1911; "Music School Settlements," by Moscowitz in the *Survey* for June 24, 1911.)
 6. *Reading* from "Social Ideals in English Letters," by Scudder.
- MAY 20-27
1. *Reading*. "Future of Russia" in the *Outlook* for March, 1911.
 2. *Book Review*. "Labor Problems," by Adams and Sumner.
 3. *Summary* of "Towards Social Reform," by S. A. and C. Barnet.
 4. *Map Talk*. "Ecuador and Colombia."
 5. *Original Dialogue* between citizens of Quito and Bogotá who discuss the respective charms of their cities.
 6. *Reading* from "Maria" in the Library Shelf of this Magazine.



TRAVEL CLUB

Travel Clubs should be provided with Hale's "Practical Guide to Latin-America," with a large map of South America, and with individual outline maps of South America which each member may fill in as the study progresses. Apply to the Book Store, Chautauqua, N. Y. Photographs, picture postcards, or pictures in books of all buildings and places mentioned should be exhibited.

In addition to the special bibliography in this number a general bibliography on the Reading Journey through South America will be found in the September CHAUTAUQUAN on page 129. If any clubs or libraries can provide but two books for supplementary reading they should be Dawson's "The South American Republics" and Hale's "The South Americans." Of great contemporary interest is the "Bulletin" published by the Pan-American Union, Washington, D. C. This is a handsomely illustrated monthly magazine whose subscription price is \$2.00 a year. Every Travel Club will find a subscription worth while.

FIRST WEEK

1. *Map Talk*. "Ecuador."
2. *Roll Call*. "The Resources of Ecuador."
3. *Historical Sketch* of "Ecuador" (Dawson's "South American Republics" part II; Akers's "A History of South America.")
4. *Brief Biographies*. "Great Men of Ecuador" (Garcia, Morena, Borrero, Veintemilla, Cordero, Alfaro, etc.)
5. *Explanation*. "Indian Characteristics of Ecuador" (Akers; Dawson).
6. *Postcard Messages*. "The Sights of Guayaquil" (Hale's "Guide;" Curtis's "Between the Andes and the Ocean;" Pepper's "Panama to Patagonia.")

SECOND WEEK

1. *Summary* of "A Woman in the Andes" by Peck in *Harper's Monthly* for December, 1906; same title and author in *Harper's Weekly* for August 8, 1908.

2. *Reading*. "Ecuador's New Railway" in *Harper's Weekly*, September 19, 1908.
3. *Letter Home* describing "Quito" (Clark's "Continent of Opportunity;" Curtis's "Capitals of Spanish-America;" Hale's "Guide.")
4. *Roll Call*. "What interests me most in Ecuador and Why."
5. *Paper*. "Architecture in Earthquake Countries."
6. *Reading* from Henry Clay's speech on South American Independence (see Warner Library.)

THIRD WEEK

1. *Map Talk*. "Colombia."
2. *Paper*. "Volcanoes and Earthquakes" (see references under both heads in "Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature;" Curtis's "Between the Andes and the Ocean;" (Akers; Clark; Pepper; Simpson's "Travels in the Wilds of Ecuador.")
3. *Reading*. "Colombian Earthquake" in *Nature*, February 22, 1906.
4. *Description*. "Population of Colombia" (Akers; Dawson).
5. *Historical Sketch* of Colombia (Dawson, part II.)
6. *Original Poem* on "Balboa."

FOURTH WEEK

1. *Roll Call*. "What has interested me most in the study of Colombia, and Why."
2. *Book Review* of "The Colombian and Venezuelan Republics," by William L. Scruggs.
3. *Paper*. Colombian Literature (Ruhl's "The Other Americans;" extracts from article on "Latin-American Literature" in Warner's Library.)
4. *Letter from Bogotá* (Clark; Curtis's "Capitals;" Ruhl.)
5. *Original Poem or Story*. "El Dorado."
6. *Reading* of the extract from "Maria" in the Library Shelf of this number.



REVIEW QUESTIONS ON MAY READING

AS WE SEE OURSELVES. VIII. ECONOMICS AND SOCIOLOGY

1. What is the theme of this paper? 2. On what subject is the largest group? 3. What agreement do the authors reach on the subject of the labor union? 4. What does John Mitchell say? 5. Andrew Carnegie? 6. At what number are organized laborers estimated? 7. What has been the effect of unions? 8. What does Professor Commons say? 9. Give the statistics on strikes. 10. What particular industries have been written about lately? 11. What is said of specialization of work? 12. Of sweat-shops and their evils? 13. Of the work of women? 14. Children? 15. How does the author summarize the condition of the workingman today? 16. What subject is discussed in the second group of books? 17. What does Professor Jenks say? 18. How does Mr. Carnegie explain the growth of great fortunes? 19. What does he lay down as the duty of the rich man? 20. Give some of the estimates of the cost of living for a workingman. 21. What are Scott Nearing's figures? 22. How do they account for the entrance of women and children into the working field? 23. What is said of the wages of women? 24. How extensive is great wealth? 25. How is social unrest accounted for? 26. What is said of the advance of socialism? 27. How does Frederic C. Howe describe the boss? 28. What does

Professor Laughlin say about corruption in cities? 29. Name some of the other advances. 30. What does Miss Sumner say about the working of woman suffrage in Colorado? 31. Quote Professor Commons on immigration. 32. How does Booker T. Washington summarize the negro problem? 33. What is DuBois's view? 34. What is the present status of books on the Indian problem? 35. What does Frederic C. Howe say about city problems? 36. Speak of settlements and their workers. 37. What has been Jacob Riis's work? 38. What does Thompson say of the position of the church in America today? 39. Correlate the facts set forth in this paper with their application in other forms of American literature.

READING JOURNEY THROUGH SOUTH AMERICA. CHAPTER VIII.

ECUADOR AND COLOMBIA.

Ecuador. 1. What is the size of Ecuador? 2. What are the political divisions of the country? 3. What are the river systems? 4. What is the climate? 5. What are some of the plants? 6. To what uses is the aloe put? 7. What are some of the other resources of the country? 8. What is the history of Atacames? 9. Speak of the hat industry. 10. What is the importance of Guayaquil? 11. Describe the steamer trip along the coast. 12. How large is the river Guayas? 13. Where is Guayaquil? 14. What sort of street is El Malecon? 15. Why are the buildings made of such slight materials? 16. Speak of dwellings of various sorts. 17. Describe the scenery between Guayaquil and Quito. 18. Name some of the characteristics of Chimborazo. 19. What are some of the other enormous mountains? 20. Describe the crater of Cotopaxi. 21. What is the tradition of the "Inca's Head"? 22. When was the last great eruption? 23. What is the situation of Quito? 24. What is its history? 25. Compare it with Guayaquil. 26. Speak of the architecture. 27. Of the people.

Colombia. 28. What is the situation of Colombia? 29. What is its size? 30. Its topography? 31. What are its resources? 32. What is its climate? 33. Speak of its animals. 34. How does the traveller get about? 35. What is the situation of Bogotá? 36. Who were the chief of the Spanish adventurers? 37. Who was the founder of Bogotá and what discovery did he make about the legend of The Gilded Man? 38. What name did Quesada give to his discovery? 39. What are the surroundings of Bogotá? 40. Characterize Bogotá. 41. Describe the city. 42. Describe the traveller's trip away from Bogotá. 43. What are the chief towns on the Caribbean? 44. Describe Cartagena. 45. Describe Colombia's West Coast and interior. 46. Quote Mr. Barrett and Mr. Scruggs.

AMERICAN ENGINEERING. CHAPTER VIII. REINFORCED CONCRETE.

1. Wherein lies the mystery of concrete? 2. What are some of its uses? 3. For what did the Romans use it? 4. Why was Portland cement so called? 5. How great is America's use of concrete? 6. What three kinds of cement are there? 7. Describe Portland cement. 8. Distinguish between the unit system and the monolithic system of building with concrete. 9. Define reinforced concrete. 10. What percent of steel is used? 11. Why are beams and columns sometimes covered with concrete? 12. How is concrete made up and what is the ideal combination? 13. Explain different mixtures of concrete and their uses? 14. What are 'forms'?

15. What consistencies of concrete are used and how is the mixing done? 16. Explain the characteristics of plain concrete. 17. What is the tensile strength of steel? 18. What other characteristic makes it a good combination with concrete? 19. Why is not concrete construction standardized? 20. How are columns reinforced? 21. Walls? 22. Floors? 23. Beams and girders? 24. Roofs? 25. What must be the treatment of concrete below the surface level? 26. What methods have been tried to prevent the encroachment of water into concrete? 27. Why is the Harvard Stadium an engineering construction of especial interest? 28. How many people will it hold? 29. Why was it an economy to build so large an amphitheater? 30. What is its size? 31. What is the provision for exits and entrances? 32. What is its shape and what its construction? 33. How are the seat slabs made and how was their strength tested? 34. How were the walls made? 35. How quickly was the work done?



SEARCH QUESTIONS ON MAY READINGS

1. With what university is Professor Commons connected? 2. Professor Jenks? 3. Frederic Howe? 4. On the staff of what magazine is Miss Ida Tarbell?

1. When was Edward Whymper in Ecuador? 2. What is the title of his book on South America?

1. When was Portland Castle built? 2. What historic occasion is connected with Portland, England?



ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON APRIL READINGS

1. He sent Stanley as an explorer to Africa in 1871-72. 2. "The Sultan of Sulu," "Peggy from Paris," "The County Chairman," "The College Widow," "Father and the Boys."

1. Born in 1856 in Rochester, England, married an American. Author and traveller. Has made the ascent of many lofty mountains.

1. Sixth President of the United States. Son of President John Adams. 2. CO₂



NEWS FROM CIRCLES AND READERS

"Oklahoma is active in civic matters," said Pendragon, nodding to a Western member, who nodded back approvingly. "The Chickasha Circle has been supplementing its regular studies by the reading of papers on various aspects of hygiene and sanitation." "It is something we know too little about," some one volunteered, "and every talk one listens to on School Hygiene or on Tuberculosis is valuable because it helps us to be practical." "We in Brockton, as befits good neighbors of the wise Hub," said a Massachusetts

woman, "are much interested in the colleges to which we are sending our sons and daughters, and on College Day we filled our afternoon with a discussion of many of the colleges and universities in the United States." "How did you plan it?" "Each member looked up the colleges in three states and found out their most prominent graduates." "I was one of the guests, for it was a guest day," said an earnest woman, "and I learned much that was interesting, and that I shall not forget." "It must have been a sort of Who's Who chapter," laughed Pendragon. "The program developed amazingly," said the Brockton member. "The first paper, for instance, told of thirty colleges in New York and thirty in Pennsylvania; two others were written by women very familiar with Brown and Syracuse, and still another described an airship trip to the colleges of the South."

"The Pierian Circle in the prison at Stillwater, Minnesota, is still keeping up its Chautauqua work after many years, and the secretary has sent me a clipping of a recent meeting," said Pendragon.

"The program consisted of the following papers, one and all of exceptional merit: 'Woman's Awakening,' a suffrage argument, by Apache, was of the same dashing style that characterizes all of his efforts; 'Modern Mexico' was an excellent article, interesting and well prepared; 'The Panama Canal' was an account which gave the Circle a treat. Our view was broadened on the subject, and it also showed a great deal of work and thought on the part of the writer. The way the author handled the questions put to him by the members of the Circle after the paper was read, showed that he thoroughly understood whereof he spoke."

"Those poor fellows certainly work under a handicap," observed the Man Across the Table, "but they are not the only ones. I happen to have come across several readers who labor with the difficulties of poor eyesight. One is in Jefferson, Ohio, and another in Wyoming, New York." "This reader says that her 'most helpful experience has been the knowledge and interest created in other lands'." "I come from St. Louis, Missouri," said another member. "I have read under the handicap of serious eye trouble. I greatly enjoy THE CHAUTAUQUAN WEEKLY—it keeps interest alive all the year 'round." "I have done my reading under trying circumstances too," said a New Yorker from Jamestown. "Six years ago I lost my perfectly good right eye. I have read with my dear old father who is eighty-five years old, and also with my boys, one ten and the other twenty-two." "Another instance of the

adaptability of the course to a wide difference of ages," commented Pendragon. "Are there any others of you who work under difficulties?" "I am a working housekeeper," said a Belfast, Maine, woman. "If you hear of anyone giving the excuse, 'no time,' for not becoming a Chautauquan, please refer him to me!" "You speak with real feeling," exclaimed a Cleveland, amid general laughter. "I do nearly all of my reading on the street cars." "So do I," said an Oklahoman from Marlow. "My reading is done on street cars. I have been especially interested because of the feeling in talking with your friends that you were informed as to the life and customs of the human race, the steady growth of civilization, the hints as to the ultimate character of increased population." "I am a suburbanite," acknowledged a Buffalonian. "I have done nine-tenths of my reading on the street cars going to and from business. My Chautauqua reading has stimulated an interest in many things read of in the newspapers and has also made me feel more competent to talk on current topics." "Most of my reading has been done in traveling to and from business," said a New Yorker. "This time, about two hours a day, is given to the daily papers and Chautauqua reading. I have also taken portions of my noon hour for my reading from time to time." "I am employed from 6:30 a. m. to 6 p. m., and must do all my reading in the evening," said yet another member. "I read while riding back and forth to my employment and during the luncheon hour," said another New Yorker. "That is what I do in a far distant state and amid different surroundings," said a teacher from Ishawooa, Wyoming. "I read during the noon hour in my rural school which is more than twenty miles from the nearest town. The books I read night and morning before duty calls. I thoroughly appreciate the Highways. The course has been a great help in school, especially the pictures."

"I am another Maine housekeeper," contributed an Augusta woman, "and household duties, the Course, and the demands of five children are sandwiched in with the '20th Century American,' 'American Engineering,' and 'Fiction.' "I have found my Circle study helpful in school," said another teacher. "It certainly has made me a better teacher," asserted the delegate from Louisburg, Tennessee. "During the four years of our reading we in Raymond, Kansas, endeavored to keep the teachers in our public school (a

graded one) interested in the C. L. S. C. reading, and have always had two or three teachers reading, and sometimes all three. Our greatest pleasure has been the marked improvement for literature and art among the pupils." "I come from Downs," said still another Kansan. "I have read on Saturday afternoons to the children at the Carnegie Library and have sought to bring before them a better class of children's stories than they ever had before."

"My work is quite different," said a woman from Indianapolis, "I am a graduate nurse. I read when nursing, both to myself and to my patients." "That is exactly what I am and do," chimed in a Rochester follower of Mrs. Gamp's profession. "My experiences are purely domestic," laughed a Coudersport Pennsylvanian. "I read while my friend sews, or she reads while I iron or mend stockings. The greatest good that has come to me through the four years' course has been in gaining confidence in myself in speaking before a company of people, but the best times have been when three or four of us would sit down for an evening's reading and discussion." "I, too," said a Philadelphian. "I have probably derived the greatest benefit from being able to discuss and understand the current news of the day—the questions coming up in daily life." "Wichita has been interested in Socialism recently," offered a Kansan, "and in the discussions of Socialism Chautauqua members found that their study had given them plenty of information along that line." "I live on a farm near Rome," said another New Yorker, "and I have no near congenial neighbors, so my Chautauqua reading has meant a good deal to me. It has taught me to enjoy real literature. My reading has kept me from becoming quite a back number." "My enthusiasm has never failed me," declared a Fall River delegate, "and I can truly say they were most profitable and enjoyable, for my reading has broadened my mental horizon and given me comfort and inspiration." "That is my case exactly," cried an Arizonan from Eocuela, "I have derived more benefit than I can express from my reading." "I wish every woman in America could read the Chautauqua Course and get as much out of it as I have. I certainly like going to school again," cried one of the eager readers of Shelbyville, Illinois. "Personally," declared a Wilson, New York, delegate, "I think one of the greatest thoughts which the Chautauqua idea teaches is systematic working and living, for it can be applied in our every-day lives and not

only in the reading of these books." "I feel that way also," said a member from Spearfish, South Dakota. "I am intending to keep up my reading in the Circle now, forever. I am so glad I have my Chautauqua so I shall not get rusty." "You will not, indeed," agreed an Iowan. "I am past fifty and a grandmother, yet I do thoroughly enjoy the reading. The thing I regret exceedingly is that I have not been taking the C. L. S. C. for years past. Much precious time has been lost. We are all on tiptoe with wonder and expectation as to what next year will bring us." "Something delightful, without question," answered a St. Joseph, Missourian. "The pleasure I enjoy in being a Chautauquan is so great that I am safe in considering myself a life member" "I expect always to be a Chautauquan, too," declared a member from Enid, Oklahoma, "as I feel that I could hardly get along without the strength and encouragement of the Chautauqua outlook." "I live not very far from where things are moving rapidly," contributed a member from Edgewood, Rhode Island, "but I was suffering from stagnation and the C. L. S. C. inspired me to new endeavor after fifteen years of arrested development. Today I realize myself as never before and trust I am a better wife, a wiser mother, and more useful in the community. I see my own experience duplicated in others, and such strong development in adults seems little short of marvelous. All this is directly traceable to the grand encouraging influence of the C. L. S. C." "I do not know that I can relate any particularly interesting experience," said a St. Louis delegate, "but I should like to say that the course has been most helpful to me, and as my family realize that I have pursued it under a good many difficulties, they seem to have been impressed with my determination to complete the work." "Our Rhode Island friend used a telling word when she said she was suffering from stagnation," said a Virginian from Ashburn. "The reading has been of great help to me in keeping me from stagnation, also in giving me something to think about while doing other things, in giving me general views of life beyond my experience and in furnishing me with selected, related reading which required a certain amount of thinking on my part to understand and stimulated further thought. I feel sometimes as if I ought to bear some kind of a label 'Chautauqua' or 'C. L. S. C.'." "We are all tarred with the same brush," laughed Pendragon. "I know I am," said the

delegate from Pasadena. "To me the course has been an uplift both mentally and spiritually and I shall always be thankful that I had the privilege of being one of the C. L. S. C." A West Philadelphian added her mite to the conversation,—“I have enjoyed every bit of the reading and it has been a constant help in every-day living.” “To civic everyday living, as well,” said the Missourian from Butler. “The influence of the C. L. S. C. has created here a sentiment for something worth while.” “Chautauquans were prominent in Coudersport,” reported a Pennsylvanian, “in working for school improvements. I had the privilege of representing the C. L. S. C. in committee with other members from the S. H. G., Civic Society, and New Century Club to meet the president of the school board to suggest changes in our primary school building. The improvements were carried out to the great advantage of the children.”

“I am a pastor’s wife and we live in Fall River,” said a Massachusetts delegate. “The Chautauqua books have proved their value in interesting a club of young women who are not much inclined to study.”

“Here are some letters that you may enjoy,” said Pen-dragon. “A Michigan reader writes from St. Joe:

“‘I went through the Golden Gate in 1902 with sixteen seals on my diploma. I was in the class two more years and added nine more seals to my diploma. I also belong to the S. H. G. Class of Benton Harbor.’”

“A Connecticut enthusiast, whose note is headed ‘Middletown,’ says:

“‘Ah! If only I could do something to get to Chautauqua my dream of bliss would indeed be full, for I love everything it stands for.’”

“Here is some one who writes a ‘human interest’ story from Rochester:

“‘I have enjoyed studying the different characters in our Circle. I have grown to know people whom I would not have had an intimate acquaintance with otherwise, and have grown to care for different kinds, or classes, of people, and to have a wider knowledge of humanity.’”

“I want to report to the Round Table for the 1911 Letter Circle,” said a graduate.

One member of the Longfellow Class writes: “I have lost none of my enthusiasm for the Chautauqua studies.” The class poet has recited her message, which she wrote for the class in the poem, “Our Message,” and had a graphophone record made. Another member says: “Oh! how I linger over the dear name of Chautauqua as it has had a place in my inmost heart since childhood, a dream

only realized last summer; never to be forgotten days, and impressions received there can not be effaced by time." The faithful class treasurer says: "I feel as though I want always to read the C. L. S. C. books. I think I have got the habit. These letters are a good way to keep up class spirit and interest."

Any member of the Class of 1911 who wishes to join a Round Robin letter circle may do so by sending her name and address to Miss Una B. Jones, Stittville, N. Y.

"Before we separate," said the Man Across the Table, "I must tell you about the seven-year-old daughter of an '89. She told her mother a few days ago that she had passed all her examinations 'with extinction'." "And I want to say," said the Smiling Girl from Denver, "that not long ago I was accepted by a strange lady on a train as a desirable travelling companion because a copy of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* in my hand vouched for a sympathy of interests between us."

Talk About Books

THE ART OF THE ROMANS. H. B. Walters. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$5.00 net.

There has long been need of a scholarly and non-partisan treatise on Roman Art in its entirety. This is now offered by Mr. H. B. Walters, curator in the British Museum, author also of a book on Greek Art. The present volume is, in a sense, a sequel to the earlier one, and assumes in the reader a knowledge both of the elements of Greek art and of Roman history. Mr. Walters's thesis is that there did exist an art which, though Greek in form, was essentially Roman in spirit and character. This view, discredited by many, is obviously difficult of establishment when we consider that, of the best Roman art, the inspiration, the technique, and often the workmen were Greek. Mr. Walters admits at the outset, in his excellent introductory chapter, that Roman art was no new invention. Nor yet was it an independent creation. It was of double origin, not merely of native growth, nor merely imported or imitative. By careful analysis of the salient characteristics of Greek and or Roman art, the author shows how the conquering race everywhere stamped upon its Greek imitations its own individuality.

In dealing with Etruscan art, Mr. Walters points out, even in its crude beginnings, that tendency to naturalism and contempt for

the abstract and typical which, Rome's heritage from Etruria, became the controlling factor in all Roman art. The author shows also how these national characteristics were expressed in the very structural elements of Roman architecture, in the narrative sculptures of their triumphal arches and historical monuments, in their unidealized portrait statues.

Rome's most distinctive contribution to sculpture is the realism of her landscape painting, and the variety of subjects chosen for her metal-work and pottery. Though a summarizing chapter at the end would be of great value, yet the book produces a cumulative impression of the individuality of the "practical yet sumptuous Roman art," which sprang from the blending of "the artificiality of later Hellenistic culture and the realism of native Italian art."

The usefulness of the volume is greatly enhanced by fine illustrations, a bibliography and chronological table of Roman History.

THE LEARNING PROCESS. Stephen Sheldon Colvin, Ph.D., Prof. of Psychology, University of Illinois. New York: Macmillan Co. Price \$1.25 net.

Pedagogical literature has received a valuable addition in "The Learning Process," by Prof. Colvin. The aim of the author is to show the significance of the fundamental facts of the learning process in theory and in practice in both elementary and secondary schools.

The chapter on "Imagination" is particularly interesting and valuable. A rather unique definition of education is reasonable and enlightening. "Education may be defined as the process of teaching the child to fear what he ought; to fear those things that will work him harm." Irrational fear is one of the greatest obstacles to rational training. The chapters on the higher thought process are a welcome supplement to a text-book on education.

ALL THE CHILDREN OF ALL THE PEOPLE. By William Hawley Smith. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$1.50 net.

"The Evolution of Dodd," by William Hawley Smith sold more than a million copies, and this fact adds to the curiosity with which "All the Children of All the People," by the same author, is being received by readers of the earlier book. Mr. Smith has written this volume as a help toward the solution of the difficulties which are everywhere confronting modern educators. Not all children are born with the same equipment. Mind is limitless, the physical is limited. When a child is born "short" in some respect it is because his body trammels that expression of his mind. Seeming mental dullness, insanity, are no faults of the mind, according to the author; the mind is in working order but it cannot "come through." Sometimes

a surgical operation remedies the trouble at once. In less evident cases the way to handle the situation is to develop the "long" characteristics—the things the child can do well—and while not ignoring the "short" side, trust to its drawing benefit from the general rise. To keep moving with God and to forward His work is to do one's best with the difficult task of living.

The history of universal education shows that its effort to standardize has not reckoned with the personal equation. Adaptation is where the present system fails. "An educated man," in the definition of the old engineer, "is the man who is on to his job." School education ought to help him to get there. Methods should be right, teachers and parents should co-operate, common sense should be the guiding laws.

Teacher or layman, everyone should read this book. He may solve some hitherto unsolved mystery about himself.

HEROES AND GREATHEARTS AND THEIR ANIMAL FRIENDS. By John T. Dale. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 60 cents.

The purpose of this book is to awaken admiration for heroes and a desire to imitate those who have combined goodness, greatness, and the spirit of kindness. The numerous anecdotes of statesmen, philanthropists, poets, explorers, and authors, in which their friendship and love of animals is briefly and vividly set forth, will exert a potent influence.

THE MAN IN THE SHADOW. By Richard Washburn Child. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$1.25 net.

The author of "Jim Hands" has gathered into a single volume a goodly number of his short stories, and the usually hazardous experiment is successful. Mr. Child has a power of pleasant invention, some strength, and a swinging style, and these qualities make a running thread of unity through the book, although the subjects of the tales are varied and somewhat out of the usual.

MONNA LISA. By Guglielmo Scala. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company. \$1.00 net. Postage 10 cents.

Appearing with especial timeliness while the attention of the world is turned to the vanished masterpiece of Leonardo, this narrative of the painter's love for his sitter has a certain fascination, though it is not especially convincing. Written in journal form, the style has the merit clinging to a love story told in the first person. The humorous feature of the book is supplied by an insert of the publisher kindly explaining for the sake of the credulous that "Scala" is but a pen name, the journal but a myth.

THE BRITISH MUSEUM: ITS HISTORY AND TREASURES. Henry C. Shelly. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. \$3.00.

Fortunate it is that the British Museum, England's great treasure house venerated by the scholars of every land and unique in its world influence, has found a biographer whose delightful style has given us a historic picture, not with the painstaking skill of a keeper of musty records, but with scholarly fervor that discerns the genuine romance that seems to be woven into almost every detail of the story. We are told that out of the ashes of a fire which greatly damaged the Cottonian library in 1731, the British Museum was born. Those early years of the museum's birth throes, culminating in 1759 when Montague House became its home, were the years which ensconced the Cottonian library, the Harlem manuscripts and the Sloane collection under one roof. Then, under George II came the King's library which was the accumulation of the collections begun by Henry VII. Hard upon that were added the famous "King's Pamphlets" collection of Thomasson, some thirty tracts, whose value according to Carlyle "the world could not parallel;" a valuable supply of Hebrew books and manuscripts gathered by an Amsterdam Jew, grateful for his blessings in an adopted land; David Garrick's collection of English plays. During these years happened those thrilling British experiences with the French in Egypt when amid the spoils of war the Rosetta Stone found its way to England, and the extraordinary acquisition of the Elgin Marbles received with such astounding ignorance by the dilettanti of England till their wonderful qualities were assured. Of the fascinating story of the librarians of the Museum nothing may be told here, save mention of the one figure, H. F. Cary, the great translator of Dante, who alone is accorded a place in the Poet's Corner at Westminster Abbey. The author's summary of the priceless manuscripts, classic and Egyptian rooms, exhibitions of civilization in the making, etc., emphasize the fact that aside from the two and a half million books in the library where some two hundred and thirty thousand people have studied in a single year, the museum serves to educate the great public. Every stage of this fascinating story is crowded with illuminating incidents which make the past live again.

THE ANIMAL WORLD. By F. W. Gamble. New York: Henry Holt & Co.; London: Williams & Norgate. 75 cents net.

The results of the researches of biologists into the structure, classification and functioning of animals has been simply told in this wonderfully interesting book on "The Animal World" by a professor of zoology in the University of Birmingham. Equipped with a bibliography and a glossary-index the volume makes a useful hand-

qua, New York, will follow with especial interest the volumes of the Rural Textbook Series which is edited by Dr. L. H. Bailey of Cornell. "Beginnings in Agriculture" is written by the Secretary to the New York State College of Agriculture at Cornell and is planned to meet the needs of the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary schools. The relation of the farmer to his locality and his working materials, the nature of soils, the kinds of farm plants and the care of farm animals are all discussed with simplicity, and the text is supplemented by the suggestion of practical problems. The book makes interesting reading for anybody.

THE TEACHING OF AGRICULTURE IN HIGH SCHOOL. By Garland Armor Bricker. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$1.00.

In "The Teaching of Agriculture in the High School" Mr. Garland Armor Bricker has analyzed the problem of agricultural education in secondary schools and formulated its aims and methods. He calls attention to the fact that "The object of the high school is not to produce professional agriculturists, but to teach the elementary scientific principles involved in agriculture as a part of general culture. It is no more the duty of the high school to produce professional agriculturists than it is to produce business men, lawyers, or physicians;" but he says "Pupils should be given enough practice in the application of agricultural principles to enable them to use such principles should they elect farming for a life work." As a teacher of agriculture and as a supervisor and teacher in the field of general education, Mr. Bricker handles his subject concretely and practically. He explains and shows the nature of the work to be done in elementary, collegiate, and secondary agriculture; sketches the rise and development of secondary education in agriculture in the United States from the agricultural college type down through the district, county, village, township, high school types to the private secondary school type and then sums up the social results of secondary agriculture. In opposition to the advocates of the teaching of agriculture in connection with the other sciences, he insists that it be regarded as a distinct and separate science. Two chapters are devoted to the psychological and seasonal determinations of sequence, a chapter each is given to organization of the course, aims of presentation, organization of the laboratory and field work, and an illustrative list of classified exercises. The book boasts about 30 illustrations, an appendix in which is noted a classified list of authoritative text books on general agriculture, beside innumerable foot-note book references and a comprehensive index.

EXERCISES IN ENGLISH. Edwin C. Woolley, Ph.D. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. Price 60 cents.

Mr. Woolley's "Exercises in English" is one of a series of books on English speaking and writing English. It is a drill book for practice in writing adapted to the needs of the individual as well as to ordinary class work. The contents include exercises in the use of the dictionary, lessons on grammatical science and terminology, chapters on correct English and rhetorical principles, the mechanics of spelling, compounding, and so forth, letter-writing and pronunciation. The detailed synopsis of the contents of the book, following the Table of Contents is a most valuable key to the material within. This book which literally contains *multum in parvo*, should meet with even greater success than its predecessors.

THE SOCIALIST MOVEMENT. By J. Ramsay Macdonald, New York: Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents net.

The author gives his definition of Socialism in his introduction: "Socialism is the creed of those who, recognizing that the community exists for the improvement of the individual and for the maintenance of liberty, and that the control of the economic circumstances of life means the control of life itself, seeks to build up a social organization which will include in its activities the management of these economic instruments such as land and industrial capital that cannot be left safely in the hands of individuals." Under this conception of the state, as the author says, "many interests cluster." The approach to it in England, he states, comes from political pathways like the Independent Labor Party, from the religious point of view like the Church Socialist League, and from the scientific socialist groups who have their own biological or other pathways.

This compact little volume views the subject first from its evolutionary side, showing the grounds upon which socialists base their criticism, then develops the constructive side of the movement, and closes with a brief historical account of socialist progress in different countries.

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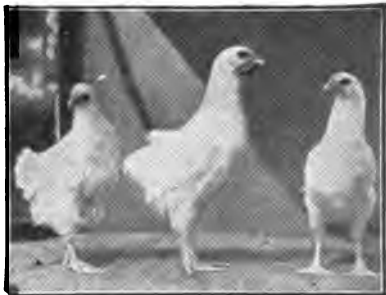
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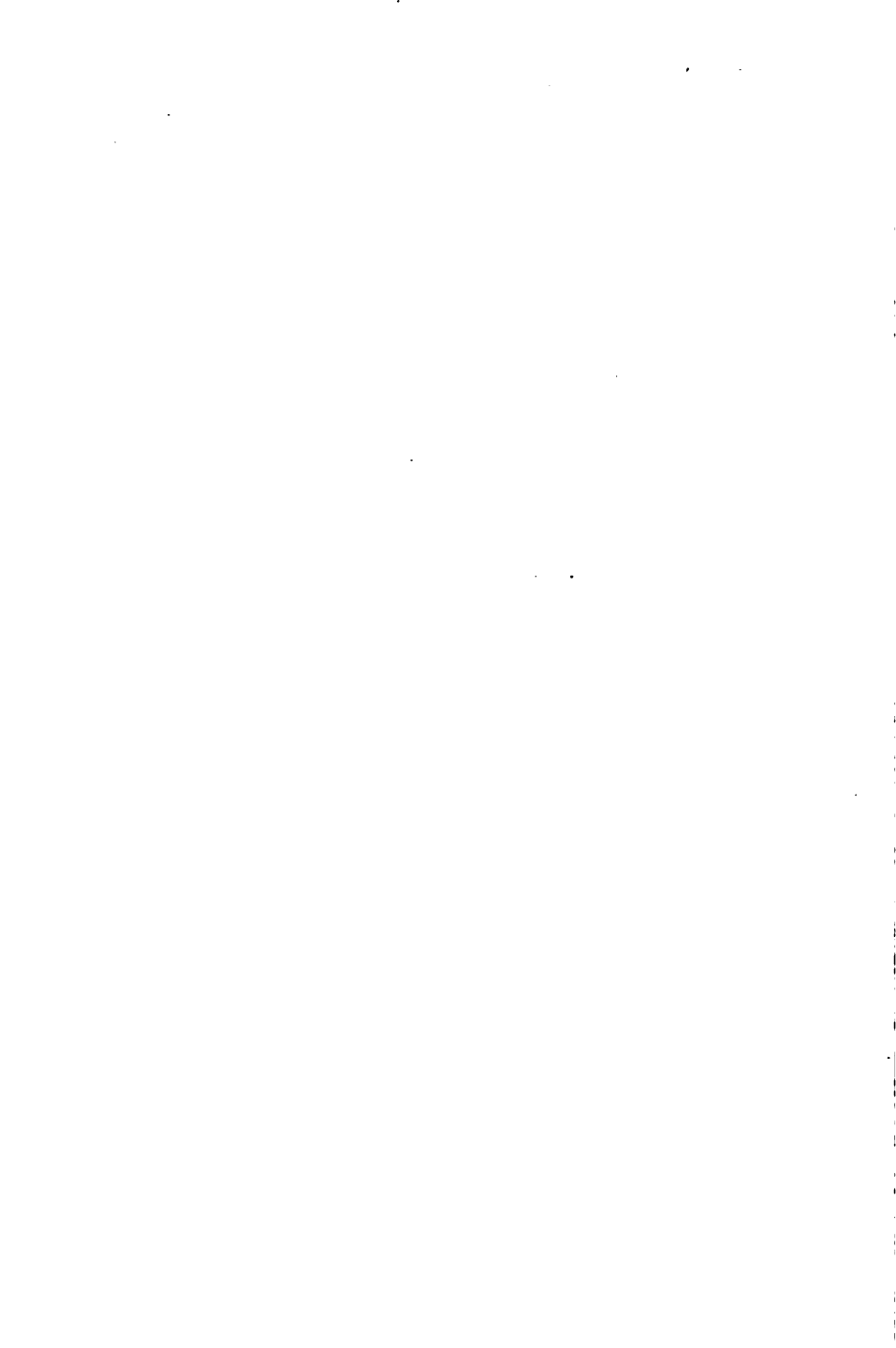
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Exciting Political Developments

This promises to be a year of political surprises. The "oldest observer" feels that almost anything may happen in view of the extraordinary things that have already happened in presidential politics.

Some months ago it was apparent that Mr. Roosevelt was, from the practical point of view, a candidate for the Republican presidential nomination. His friends and supporters were even then strenuously campaigning for him, although he had not said publicly that he would "under any circumstances" accept a nomination. A situation was created when Mr. Roosevelt felt that he could not maintain silence on that essential point. He accordingly wrote a letter to the seven state executives who had urged him to "speak," stating that he would accept a nomination "if tendered by the national convention." An explanation of his "anti-third term pledge" immediately followed. Mr. Roosevelt was opposed to three consecutive terms for any man, but an ex-President is a private citizen without patronage or any other influence that can be improperly used, and there is therefore no menace to free institutions or to political morality in a third nonconsecutive term.

Mr. Roosevelt announced his "platform" in a speech to the Ohio Constitutional convention. His candidacy, he has since declared, is a protest against political and financial privilege, and a vindication of popular rule. He demands

presidential preference primaries, advocates the referendum and initiative in state politics, and the recall of judges in extreme cases only. He stands for purer and greater democracy, for fewer "checks and balances" in our system. By implication the Taft administration and candidacy are thus condemned by him as insufficiently progressive and as too friendly to political and financial privilege.

Not a few of Mr. Roosevelt's supporters are open and emphatic in their condemnation of the Taft administration, calling it reactionary and inefficient. But President Taft is supported by many Republican progressives on the ground that he is advanced enough on all essential points—that, for example, he is a genuine progressive on further tariff revision, on conservation, on the extension of the merit service, on peace and arbitration, on industrial and labor problems, on questions of efficiency and economy in administration. Must a progressive, ask these friends of the President, accept the referendum, the recall, popular reversal of judicial decisions, or be read out of the camp?

The Roosevelt candidacy is more popular in the West than in the East, but what strength it will develop in the Republican convention is a matter for conjecture. Good observers predict the nomination of President Taft on the first ballot, although some of them assert that if we had presidential-preference primary laws in most of the states, instead of in a few only, the Republican rank and file would indorse Mr. Roosevelt decisively.

Whatever happens, the fight will end in the convention. Mr. Roosevelt will not oppose the nominee in any case, and will entertain no "third party" proposal. There is some talk of a "compromise candidate," and Justice Hughes is occasionally mentioned, but it is tolerably manifest that there is little basis for this talk. Senator La Follette will remain a candidate until the convention acts, but his sudden physical collapse took him out of the active contest, for a time, and practically his chances are believed to have disappeared

weeks ago. Had his candidacy made greater headway and had his health and vigor permitted his personal participation in the fighting, Mr. Roosevelt would not have been urged by the anti-Taft insurgents to enter the arena.

In the Democratic field no dramatic changes have occurred. The attacks on Governor Woodrow Wilson have grown more violent, but he is still the leading candidate. Speaker Clark is distinctly stronger than before, but it is not clear that the radical elements will support him. The favorite of the moderates is still Gov. Harmon. Mr. Bryan has been disposed to indorse Wilson or Clark, but his latest declaration has puzzled many. He said that Gov. Shafroth of Colorado would be his first choice. Gov. Shafroth is a radical, but one hardly known to the national Democracy.

The Republican split and the multiplicity of Democratic candidates together operate to divert attention from the issues—if there be any—that divide the great parties. Each of the camps has trouble enough at home.



Are the Referendum and the Initiative "Republican?"

In an Oregon tax case a corporation attempted to persuade the United States Supreme Court that a state which adopts the referendum and initiative, or either of these institutions, and thus confers upon the qualified voters the power of "direct legislation"—that is, the power to initiate or pass upon measures adopted by the legislature—becomes "unrepublican" and may be forced to change the form of its government.

Since several states have adopted the innovations in question, and several more are about to follow their example, the question excited not only lively attention but some apprehension. It was exhaustively argued, pro and con, by able lawyers, and the final decision was for months awaited most anxiously. When the decision came it was something of a surprise to both sides. The court declared

that it was without jurisdiction in the case; that the issue was political, and that Congress, not the judiciary, was the proper tribunal to deal with it. In seating senators and representatives from the states Congress has the opportunity and right to decide whether the states have republican forms of government. The judiciary was without power to upset a state government or require a change in its form.

This, of course settles the question. Congress has repeatedly recognized states having the initiative and referendum as being "republican," and will never reverse itself. But theoretically and logically the question remains an interesting one. What is the view of "reason?" Are the initiative and referendum unrepublican or anti-republican? If so, what is the definition of the term republican?

According to the conservative view, republican government is representative government. Direct legislation by the people is hostile to representative government, and grows out of distrust of the latter; therefore is it to be regarded as anti-republican.

As a matter of fact, there is no sound foundation for this view. Any government that is not despotic, monarchical or oligarchical, any "free" or popular government, is republican. The American Constitution was adopted to get rid of monarchy and despotism, not of too much democracy, and when the constitution provided for a republican form of government in the states, it provided against kings, or tyrants, or small cliques of rulers, the essence of republicanism being the sovereignty of the people. To say that when the sovereigns legislate directly, instead of through representatives, they cease to be republican, is to argue an absurd proposition.

There is no obstacle in the federal constitution to the widest use of the initiative, referendum and recall by the states. The wisdom of these reforms the people must determine for themselves; neither Congress nor the courts can

control their decision. The tendency almost everywhere is to decide for rather than against these reforms, representative government having broken down in too many cases.



"Recall of Decisions"

Colonel Roosevelt, who is now a candidate for the Republican presidential nomination, suggested in his speech to the Ohio constitutional convention, a substitute for "the recall of judges"—a measure advocated by many radical progressives. Mr. Roosevelt opposed any general application of the recall to judges, but he admitted that in certain extreme cases, where judges were wholly out of sympathy with the people and their sentiments and needs, and were interpreting constitutions in a narrow, unfair, prejudiced spirit, he would not hesitate to use the recall. However, he preferred what he described as "the recall of decisions." This proposal was original. It had been vaguely foreshadowed in an article contributed by him to *The Outlook*, but few at that time grasped the idea. The Columbus speech and a further explanation at Boston have made the idea clear—though not popular.

What Mr. Roosevelt proposes is a referendum on decisions of the state Supreme Courts where constitutional issues are involved. Here is how the plan would work: A law is declared unconstitutional by a state Supreme Court; the people, or many of them, are disappointed and grieved, as they had worked for the law and deem it necessary and reasonable; they start a movement for a referendum on that decision, and if they secure a prescribed number of signatures, the referendum is held. If the majority of those voting sustains the decision, it stands; if a majority rejects the decision, it is over-ruled and "recalled." The law stands and is enforced subject to action by the federal Supreme Court. Mr. Roosevelt, in meeting various objections, stated that various safeguards might be adopted to prevent hasty

popular judgments and to insure a calm, full discussion of the decision sought to be recalled.

This proposal he regards as less radical than that of the recall of judges. Many progressives assert, on the contrary, that it is far more radical. It has been indorsed in very few influential newspapers—if in any. Moderate and conservative men and organs in all parties have vehemently denounced “the recall of decisions” as spelling anarchy and confusion.

Mr. Roosevelt’s extreme proposal has, however, served to direct further attention to the question of “recalling legalism to justice,” in his own words. Less radical “alternatives” have accordingly been suggested. For instance, amendments providing that laws passed by Congress or state legislatures shall be deemed valid unless the Supreme Courts concerned unanimously or with practical unanimity—say eight judges out of nine or six out of seven—agree that a certain law is unconstitutional. This method would do away with five to four and three to seven decisions on important questions and would invalidate very few laws. Possibly other methods will be suggested as the discussion proceeds. Whatever one may think of this or that plan, the question of the relations between courts and law-making bodies or their constituents has become very acute, and existing arrangements are bound to be improved. That they are not satisfactory even moderate progressives have frankly recognized. Too many wholesome and progressive laws have been annulled by honest but routine-ridden courts.



The Arbitration Treaties as They Stand

The Senate has ratified the treaties of arbitration negotiated by Secretary Knox with England and France, but not without very considerable changes in their text. In the opinion of many the changes emasculated and destroyed the treaties; President Taft stated that he was not sure they meant an advance over existing treaties and that he

could with dignity and propriety submit them to the other contracting parties; the "shelving" of them has been proposed by sincere friends of arbitration.

But there are equally sincere friends of the treaties who think there is enough life and significance left in them to make it worth while to save them. In other words, even with the Senate's omissions and alterations, the treaties, it is contended, mark an advance, a victory for peace and morals. To adopt them, therefore, is to get the proverbial half loaf and hope for the other half at another and more favorable time.

What are the Senate's amendments? One takes the form of a resolution of explanation and interpretation. It reads as follows:

That the Senate advises and consents to the ratification of the said treaty with the understanding, to be made a part of such ratification, that the treaty does not authorize the submission to arbitration of any question which affects the admission of aliens into the United States, or the admission of aliens to the educational institutions of the several states, or the territorial integrity of the several states or of the United States, or concerning the question of the alleged indebtedness or moneyed obligation of any state of the United States, or any question which depends upon or involves the maintenance of the traditional attitude of the United States concerning American questions, commonly described as the Monroe Doctrine, or other purely governmental policy.

These exceptions are not all really exceptions: the matters named, or most of them, are not justiciable in the opinion of President Taft and Secretary Knox; they would never have been submitted to arbitration in any case. But the adoption of the resolution implies distrust and fear: it makes the United States rather ridiculous. That is the ground of the objection to the resolution. Since, however, the treaty still covers many controversies now excluded, controversies of vital and fundamental interest, and of "honor," there would seem to be value in them.

The second of the Senate's changes is the elimination of that paragraph of the article in regard to a joint commission of inquiry which provided that differences as to the arbitrability of questions should be referred to the joint com-

mission. This was a very important feature of the treaties, and it excited much controversy. The elimination of it means that each of the contracting parties will decide for itself what is arbitrable and what not. This is a lame and impotent conclusion, indeed.

However, the more general joint commission feature is retained, and in many ways this would work for peace and sanity. Especially valuable is the provision that a delay of one year may be requested by either party to a dispute and must be granted by the other. A year's delay is fatal to the Jingoos and their yellow friends in journalism in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred. The most exciting issue is reasonably safe when sober second thought has a chance to deal with it. In our day war is made less by real conflicts of national interests or ambitions of designing rulers than by fury, noise, prejudice, alarm fed by unscrupulous or shallow and ignorant agitators.

On the whole, the treaties spell advance and if given effect they can be improved after the presidential election. Party and factional politics had much to do with the action of the Senate in changing them.



Legislative Reference Bureaus

Entirely aside from mistakes or blunders of policy and principle, much legislation, national and state, is well known to be clumsy, inefficient, loose. Bills are frequently drawn by men who have no skill or technical training, who cannot give sound form to their ideas, and who omit important things and insert injurious clauses. "Jokers" are often found in acts, as well as obscure, ambiguous, crude language. Moreover, many acts are passed in ignorance of the existence of similar acts in other states or countries, or in ignorance of the experience of other communities under such acts. In this day of "scientific management" and "efficiency" it is natural that there should have developed a demand for more intelligence, method and skill in the drawing of bills and the enactment of statutes.

This demand has found expression in many of our states. No fewer than fourteen of them have established legislative reference bureaus—the best known being that of Wisconsin. The bureau gathers statistics, searches books and court decisions for relevant data, gets copies of bills and acts, makes arrangements with libraries, and so on. The Wisconsin bureau is prepared to furnish any legislator with the latest available knowledge on the subject in which he is interested.

Representative Nelson of Wisconsin has a bill in the House for the establishment of a legislative reference bureau in the Library of Congress. At a hearing on this bill Ambassador Bryce, Speaker Clark, Representative Mann, the minority leader in the House, and several eminent librarians, educators and other experts appeared to argue for the bill. It is, of course, nonpartisan and nonpolitical. It cannot possibly be objectionable to any friend of efficiency and intelligence in legislation.



Efficiency and Justice

A Society for the Promotion of Efficiency has been organized in this country. Over eight hundred business men, educators, statisticians, economists and others launched the society at a New York meeting. The object is to improve methods of production, management and administration in private, corporate and public affairs. The society will make investigations, employ experts, and point out how waste can be prevented, output increased and efficiency raised with benefit to all concerned.

In some cities private or quasi-public bureaus of efficiency have been functioning for some time and seeking to reorganize governmental offices. The average official has little sympathy with such efforts, but progressive administrators welcome the aid of efficiency experts. There is a terrific amount of waste in public offices; waste means plenty of jobs, patronage, political influence. Taxpayers, on the

other hand, are naturally interested in economy and honest work, and civil service reformers are always emphasizing the need of efficiency and intelligence in public offices and departments.

In corporate and private industry there is much opposition to "efficiency" or scientific management when it spells, or is believed to spell, mere speed, less attention to the human factor, the strenuousness and automatism which make for premature decay of human beings. Trade unions are fighting the "scientific management" movement, but their opposition could be overcome by convincing them that efficiency, justice and good will might be pursued at the same time and reconciled.

Increased product should mean voluntarily increased pay of labor, friendly arrangements for profit-sharing, co-partnership, and similar higher reforms, without which industrial peace and harmony are becoming impossible. The Society for the Promotion of Efficiency should also promote labor peace, conciliation and arbitration, decent standards of living, justice to labor. To a kind or plan of efficiency which means harder work, loss of employment, espionage, etc., labor will offer the most determined opposition. The national society should begin by removing fear and by inviting labor leaders, social reformers and broad-minded economists to co-operate with it and pass on all definite projects.

Already there are progressive and enlightened men in the movement who realize the danger of arousing the hostility of organized labor or the friends of industrial justice and equity. To these efficiency involves humanity. To more and more employers should this nobler conception appeal, for it is the foundation of any tenable position with regard to the future of industry and labor.



Compulsory Accident Compensation

There are those who believe that in this country any law requiring employers to compensate employes for acci-

dents and injuries would be unconstitutional. The New York Court of Appeals held in a case which arose under a statute that covered hazardous trades only, that provision for "compulsory compensation" amounts to the taking of employers' property without due process of law.

But this view has been criticised and rejected by many lawyers and judges. All over the world accidents and injuries in industry—when not caused by wilful negligence—are being made a direct charge upon industry. This is just and necessary, for to place the burden on labor is to breed pauperism and ill will. Compulsory compensation is, of course, in the long run paid by the consumers—that is, by society as a whole.

The federal commission on employers' liability and workmen's compensation, which was appointed by the President to consider the subject, reported in favor of compulsory compensation in the field of interstate commerce transportation. The report is very advanced and takes the ground that to compel compensation is to protect and promote interstate commerce, and that the guaranty of "due process of law" does not forbid such provision.

A bill accompanied the report and fixed the scale of compensation as follows:

The monthly wages are to be considered as not more than \$100 nor less than \$50 a month, with certain exceptions.

Monthly payments of death benefits are to be made for eight years thus: A widow alone, 40 per cent of the monthly wages; widow and child under sixteen or otherwise dependent, 50 per cent and 10 per cent for each additional child; payments, if the widow dies or remarries within eight years to be continued to the children, if any, for the unexpired period. If no widow or children, 15 per cent to partially dependents, and 20 per cent to one wholly dependent parent, and 40 per cent if both parents are dependent. In the absence of these dependents, provisions are made for brother, sister, grandparent or grandchild as dependents.

Personal injury compensation is made on the basis of 50 per cent of monthly wages for life for permanent total disability and 50 percent during temporary total disability. For loss of an arm, payments are to continue 72 months, a leg 66 months, an eye 30 months, a thumb 13 months. No payments are to be made while the employé is at work at wages 90 per cent of those he received at the time of his injury.

It appears that the railroads now pay about \$10,000,000 a year for loss of life and for injuries suffered by employes. The proposed measure would add \$2,500,000 to that sum, but it would save more by doing away with litigation and lawyers' fees. Compulsory compensation, moreover, would prompt greater care on the part of the railroads and the use of more safety devices. The railroads doubtless would insure themselves or their workmen and pay reasonable rates to accident insurance companies for the service. In the long run they would find the system economical and beneficial. The experience of Europe demonstrates this.

The proposed legislation has been indorsed by the President, by the press and by impartial opinion, and will probably be enacted at this session of Congress. The chairman of the federal commission, Senator Sutherland, is satisfied that the Supreme Court will uphold the measure. That, it may be added, will enable New York to re-enact the compulsory compensation law for hazardous trades which its courts invalidated.



The South Pole Visited and "Annexed"

After Peary's successful expedition to the North Pole the "capture" by some daring and efficient explorer of the South Pole became a certainty and a question of a short time. Exploration is as difficult as ever in the polar regions, but a "dash" is a matter of organization, endurance, skill and—a little luck.

Captain Roald Amundsen of Norway, a brave sailor and explorer, the already famous hero of the Northwest Passage exploit, which took a ship from the Atlantic to the Pacific, reached the South Pole on December 14, 1911, and remained there, with four companions, until the 17th. His expedition had been well organized but hardly equipped for much scientific work. The announcement of this "discovery"—or, more correctly, inspection of a point known and yet unknown—came from Hobart, Tasmania, early in

March, the captain himself sending the news to the civilized world in a picturesque account of which modesty and generosity to his associates were pleasing characteristics. The perils and hardships of the journey were not exaggerated; the cold was declared to have been not unduly severe, and the trip at times almost pleasant and exhilarating. Terrible blizzards were, however, encountered, as well as treacherous ice fields.

Captain Amundsen brought no startling news regarding the character of the region. Theories before held by scientific men were confirmed by him. The North Pole is "ice and snow," constantly shifting ice, for it is a spot in an ocean; the South Pole is in a mountainous area, an antarctic continent, a great plateau over 10,000 feet high. These ice-bound wastes have no value in themselves, although there are those who assert that gold may be found there, as well as coal; but there is satisfaction in the achievements of men like Peary and Amundsen because they answer questions persistently asked by centuries, gratify scientific curiosity and reflect credit on the moral and intellectual qualities of the human race. Moreover, knowledge of polar conditions is useful to meteorologists, as a complete map of the wind movement of the world may become possible with the exploration and study of the poles.

It is announced that Captain Robert F. Scott of the British navy has not yet reached the South Pole. His expedition followed that of Shackleton, also of England, who came within 112 miles of the same pole. It is a better-equipped expedition, and if it has been successful, science should reap more and better results from it than from that of Amundsen.

Has the era of exploration and geographical discovery come to an end, then? many are asking. Has this little globe been thoroughly conquered, mapped, named and described by man? Sir Ernest Shackleton points out that such a notion would be mischievous and absurd. There is plenty of adven-

ture left for brave spirits, plenty of thrill and danger and romance in exploration. He mentions many places and spots which have hardly been visited, much less studied, in Asia and Africa—such as Mongolia, Thibet, Central Russia, most of wild Africa, etc. As for submarine exploration, it is barely begun, and it will tax all the courage and strength men possess. Men of wealth and interest in science and exploration should not hastily conclude that no further expeditions into wild, remote, unknown regions are possible or desirable. On the contrary, what has been done should serve to stimulate activity of explorers. A “dash” or “visit” only whets curiosity and puts questions which must be answered by patient and truly scientific men.



Swiss Referendum on Insurance

In connection with the above-discussed bill it is interesting to note the result of a national referendum in Switzerland on a government bill establishing “universal” sickness and accident insurance for wage-earners, male and female. The bill was adopted by a majority which, considering the character and extent of the opposition thereto, is deemed rather decisive. The vote was 285,000 for and 238,694 against the bill. It appears that the question of sickness and accident insurance has been “in politics” for over two decades in Switzerland, but the final campaign lasted only several months. The chambers of commerce took part in the contest; public meetings were held everywhere; public interest was intense.

The approval of the bill submitted by the government is largely due to the heavy vote for it in the German cantons, whose inhabitants were doubtless influenced by the example of the German empire. In the French cantons the majorities were adverse—in some instances the vote being three to one. The employers objected to the bill because it applies to foreign workmen residing in Switzerland, whose

number is estimated at 200,000, and also because, unlike any other labor insurance system, it insures workmen against accidents occurring when they are not actually at work, but resting or indulging in sport and recreation. Another objection to the bill was that it made accident insurance a state monopoly.

Thus the bill appeared to many to be needlessly radical in some respects and too generous to foreigners in all respects. Swiss workmen, it is said, are not liberally treated by neighboring countries, and Switzerland had no occasion to be so altruistic. That in spite of all such varied attacks the measure received a substantial majority is striking evidence of the progress of the movement toward industrial reform and the improvement of the condition of the toiling masses. The premiums under the Swiss plan are to be paid by the employers and the workmen, the former being responsible for both payments.





IX. Interpreters of American Life*

Benjamin A. Heydrick, A. M.

THE preceding chapters have presented the views of various writers on single aspects of our national life; it remains to consider a small but significant group of books in which an attempt is made to sum up that life as a whole. This has been done by two of our best known university presidents, Dr. Eliot, late of Harvard, and Dr. Butler of Columbia; by two college professors, Dr. Coolidge of Harvard and Dr. van Dyke, late of Princeton; by a well-known student of social problems, Dr. Josiah Strong, author of *Our Country*, and by an ex-President of the United States, Theodore Roosevelt. No men are better able to speak with authority than these. They unite wide knowledge with the habit of meditation, and may fitly be called the interpreters of American life.

As their books were written at different periods, it seems best to take them up in chronological order. The

*See CHAUTAUQUAN for September and October, 1911, for instalments I and II, The Novel, November for III, the Short Story, December for IV, the Drama, January, 1912, for V, Poetry, February for VI, Essays, March for VII, Journalism and Humor, April for VIII, Sociology and Efficiency.

**All the books mentioned in this article are protected by copyright, and the extracts are used by special permission of the publishers. Acknowledgment is hereby made as follows:

The Macmillan Company—The American As He Is, Nicholas Murray Butler; The Spirit of America, Henry van Dyke; The United States as a World Power, Archibald C. Coolidge.

G. P. Putnam's Sons—American Ideals, Theodore Roosevelt.

The Outlook Company—The New Nationalism, Theodore Roosevelt.

Doubleday, Page and Company—Our Country, The New Era, Josiah Strong.

The Century Company—American Contributions to Civilization, Charles W. Eliot.

Houghton, Mifflin Company—The New American Type; Henry Dwight Sedgwick.

earliest in the group is Dr. Strong's *Our Country*, written in 1886. It sets forth in a graphic way the extent and resources of our national domain. From these and from our rapid advance in population he draws the following conclusion as to the destiny of America:

There can be no reasonable doubt that North America is to be the home of the Anglo-Saxon, the principal seat of his power, the center of his life and influence. Not only does it constitute seven-elevenths of his possessions, but here his empire is unsevered while the remaining four-elevenths are fragmentary and scattered over the earth. Australia will have a great population; but its disadvantages, as compared with North America, are too manifest to need mention. Our continent has room and resources and climate, it lies in the pathway of the nations, it belongs to the zone of power, and already among Anglo-Saxons, do we lead in population and wealth. Of England, Franklin once wrote: "That pretty island which, compared to America, is but a stepping-stone in a brook, scarce enough of it above water to keep one's shoes dry." England can hardly hope to maintain her relative importance among Anglo-Saxon peoples when her "pretty island" is the home of only one-twentieth part of the race. . . . America is to have the great preponderance of numbers and of wealth, and by the logic of events will follow the scepter of controlling influence.

—*Our Country*.

The control of the Anglo-Saxon race will mean, he says, the control of the world. This control will be marked by a shifting of power within the country from the East to the West.

Beyond a peradventure, the West is to dominate the East. With more than twice the room and resources of the East, the West will have probably twice the population and wealth of the East, together with the superior power and influence which, under popular government accompany them. The West will elect the executive and control legislation. When the center of population crosses the Mississippi, the West will have a majority in the lower house and sooner or later the partition of her great territories, and probably some of the states, will give to the West the control of the Senate. . . . The West will direct the policy of the government, and by virtue of her preponderating population and influence will determine our national character and, therefore, destiny.

—*Our Country*.

Our national perils Dr. Strong enumerates as follows: Immigration, Romanism, Mormonism, intemperance, socialism, wealth, and the problems of the city.

In 1893 Dr. Strong published *The New Era*, a companion volume to *Our Country*. In this he finds that the

peril of wealth has increased. He quotes Thomas G. Shearman as authority for the statement that the average income of the richest hundred Americans cannot be less than \$1,200,000 and probably exceeds \$1,500,000. Dr. Strong goes on to say:

If one hundred workingmen could earn each \$1,000 a year, they would have to work 1,200 or 1,500 years to earn as much as the annual income of these one hundred richest Americans. And if a workingman could earn \$1,000 a day he would have to work until he was 547 years old, and never take a day off, before he could earn as much as some Americans are worth. Mr. Shearman, after having given good reasons for the opinion, says: "It may safely be assumed that 200,000 persons control 70 per cent of the national wealth." That is, three-tenths of one per cent of the population control 70 per cent of the property. In other words, in the distribution of the national wealth, one man in three hundred receives \$70 out of every \$100, and 299 men receive \$30, which if averaged would give them about ten cents each.

The wealth of Croesus was estimated at only \$8,000,000 while there are seventy American estates, according to Mr. Shearman, which average \$35,000,000 each. The nabobs of the later Roman republic became famous for their immense fortunes, but the entire possessions of the richest were not equal to the annual income of at least one American.

—*The New Era.*

As a result of this, he says, we have among us an aristocracy founded upon wealth.

Every nation has its aristocracy. In other lands the aristocracy is one of birth; in ours it is one of wealth. It is useless for us to protest that we are democratic and to plead the leveling character of our institutions. There is among us an aristocracy of recognized power, and that aristocracy is one of wealth.

—*The New Era.*

Discussing the condition of the working classes, Dr. Strong casts a new light upon the causes of the present discontent.

No doubt the condition of the working man has improved, but it by no means follows that he should be any better contented. A savage of the South Sea Islands, being presented with a yard of cloth and a few fish hooks, may be much more satisfied with his lot than a mechanic who owns his home and has all of the necessities and many of the comforts of civilized life. We must take into consideration the widely different standards of living. There has been a change for the better in the circumstances of working men, but there has been a still greater change in the *men themselves*, which is the secret of increasing popular discontent amid improving conditions. . . . Popular power makes popular intelligence a necessity; popular intelligence makes the multiplication of

popular wants inevitable; and the multiplication of popular wants, if more rapid than the improvement of the popular condition, necessarily produces popular discontent. It is quite too late for us to turn back. The multitude have already tasted of the tree of knowledge of good and evil and have become aware of their nakedness. The supplies which cover the bare necessities of life are mere fig-leaves. The masses will never be satisfied until their wants are supplied with the fullness of modern civilization. . . .

Again the workingman feels that he is not sharing equitably in the general prosperity. The spirit of American civilization is eminently progressive. The increase of our population, the springing up of new cities, and the growth of old ones, the extension of our railway and telegraph systems, the increase of our agricultural, manufacturing, and mining products, the development of our natural resources, the accumulation of our national wealth,—all these are simply enormous. . . . In the midst of all this progress the working man feels that he is practically standing still or worse. He sees many belonging to other classes waxing rich, while he is perhaps unable to support his family.

—*The New Era.*

So deep is this discontent and so wide-spread that he sees in it signs of a coming crisis.

Twice before in modern times has there been a deep and wide-spread discontent among the people—once on the eve of the great Reformation of the sixteenth century, and once on the eve of the French Revolution. Certain conditions which appeared just before the former reappeared just before the latter. It is most significant that these same conditions, among the most important of which is popular discontent, have again reappeared. . . . We have seen that popular discontent is deep-seated, that it is not likely to be temporary, that it will be satisfied with nothing less than most important and far-reaching economic and social changes.

—*The New Era.*

Turning from Dr. Strong to Dr. Eliot we pass into a calmer air. His book, *American Contributions to Civilization*, has a peculiar interest for us in that the paper which gives the book its title was an address delivered at Chautauqua on Recognition Day, 1896. He considers our national achievement as a chapter in world-history, and finds that we have made five notable contributions to civilization. These are as follows:

(1). The first and principal contribution is the advance made in the United States, not in theory only, but in practice, toward the abandonment of war as the means of settling disputes between nations, the substitution of discussion and arbitration, and the avoidance of armaments. If the intermittent Indian fighting and the brief contest with the Barbary corsairs be disregarded, the United States have had only four years and a quarter of international war in the one hundred and seven years since the adoption of the

Constitution. Within the same period the United States have been a party to forty-seven arbitrations—being more than half of all that have taken place in the modern world. The questions settled by these arbitrations have been just such as have commonly caused wars, namely questions of boundary, fisheries, damage caused by war or civil disturbance, and injuries to commerce. . . .

(2). In the United States, the great principle of religious toleration is better understood and more firmly established than in any other nation of the earth. It is not only embodied in legislation, but also completely recognized in the habits and customs of good society. Elsewhere it may be a long road from legal to social recognition of religious liberty, as the example of England shows. This recognition alone would mean, to any competent student of history, that the United States had made an unexampled contribution to the reconciliation of just governmental power with just freedom for the individual, inasmuch as the partial establishment of religious toleration has been the main work of civilization during the past four centuries. . . .

(3). The third characteristic contribution which the United States have made to civilization has been the safe development of a manhood suffrage nearly universal. . . . In the first place, American experience has demonstrated the advantages of a gradual approach to universal suffrage over a sudden leap. Universal suffrage is not the first and only means of attaining democratic government; rather it is the ultimate goal of successful democracy. It is not a specific for the cure of all political ills; on the contrary, it may itself easily be the source of great political evils. The people of the United States feel its danger today. . . .

(4). The United States have furnished a demonstration that people belonging to a great variety of races or nations are, under favorable circumstances, fit for political freedom. . . . In the first place it has demonstrated that people who at home have been subject to every sort of aristocratic or despotic or military oppression become within less than a generation serviceable citizens of a republic; and, in the second place, the United States have thus educated to freedom many millions of men. . . .

(5). Another great contribution to civilization made by the United States is the diffusion of material well-being among the population. No country in the world approaches the United States in this respect. It is seen in that diffused elementary education which implants for life a habit of reading, and in the habitual optimism which characterizes the common people. It is seen in the housing of the people and of their domestic animals, in the comparative costliness of their food, clothing, and household furniture, in their implements, vehicles, and means of transportation, and in the substitution, on a prodigious scale, of the work of machinery for the work of men's hands.

—*American Contributions to Civilization.*

But it may be asked, are not the statements in the last paragraphs in conflict with those quoted earlier about the

hard lot of the worker? On this subject Dr. Eliot wisely says:

Newspapers and magazines find it profitable to print minute accounts of the cruelest industrial practices, the most revolting human habitations, and the most depraved modes of life which can anywhere be discovered—in miners' camps, factory villages, or city slums. The evils described are real, though perhaps exaggerated; and the average reader, whose sympathy is moved day after day by some tale of injustice and distress, gradually loses all sense of the proportion of good to evil in the social organization. . . . He tends to forget the great comfortable, contented mass of people in his eager sympathy with some small fraction which is miserable and embittered; and little by little he comes to accept the extreme view that the existing social order is all wrong, although he knows perfectly well that the great majority of people, even in the worst American towns and cities, live comfortably and hopefully, and with as much contentment and gladness as can be expected in people of their rather joyless lineage.

—*American Contributions to Civilization.*

In our journalism Dr. Eliot finds one of the most effective means of social and political reform. He says:

Many people are in the habit of complaining bitterly of the intrusion of the newspaper reporter into every nook and corner of the state, and even into the privacy of home; but in this extreme publicity is really to be found a new means of social, industrial, and governmental reform and progress. As Emerson said, "Light is the best policeman." There are many exaggerations, perversions, and inaccuracies in this publicity; but on the whole it is a beneficent and a new agency for the promotion of the public welfare. . . . For almost all social, industrial, and political evils publicity gives the best hope of reasonable remedy. . . . The newspapers, which are the ordinary instruments of this publicity, are as yet very imperfect instruments, much of their work being done so hastily and so cheaply as to preclude accuracy; but as a means of publicity they visibly improve from decade to decade, and, taken together with the magazines and the controversial pamphlet, they shed more light on the social, industrial and political life of the United States than was ever shed before on the doings and ways of any people.

—*American Contributions to Civilization.*

And finally, Dr. Eliot applies to our institutions the final test: do they produce men and women of a high type? A democracy raises the lower classes, no doubt, but is the proportion of ladies and gentlemen as high as in an aristocratic society? This is his answer:

Forty years ago Emerson said it was a chief felicity of our country that it excelled in women. It excels more and more. Who has not seen in private life American women unsurpassable in grace and graciousness, in serenity and dignity, in effluent gladness and

abounding courtesy? Now, the lady is the consummate fruit of human society at its best. In all the higher walks of American life, there are men whose bearing and aspect at once distinguish them as gentlemen. They have personal force, magnanimity, moderation, and refinement; they are quick to see and to sympathize; they are pure, brave, and firm. . . . On the evidence of my reading and of my personal observation at home and abroad, I fully believe that there is a larger proportion of ladies and gentlemen in the United States than in any other country.

—*American Contributions to Civilization.*

On the whole, Dr. Eliot's judgment is decidedly more favorable than that of Dr. Strong. Is this due to the fact that he takes a wider view, that his judgment is more philosophical? Or is it because his life, as college professor and president, has brought him into contact with the best side of our national life: the eager, ardent youth of good families, the scholars of his faculty, the men of achievement among his trustees? He sees one side of life, Dr. Strong another, and perhaps the truth lies in the union of both views.

President Butler's book, *The American As He Is*, was originally given as a series of lectures at the University of Copenhagen. It is a more comprehensive survey than Dr. Eliot's, covering our political, social and intellectual life. It discusses at some length the causes which make us a united people, in spite of differences in race, in religion, and separation by great distances. One of the chief unifying forces he finds to be the persistence of the Anglo-Saxon impulse. The influence of a common language, "the sense of justice, fair play, and personal liberty which are at the bottom of the English common law," make powerfully for unity. Another cause is the continual migration of our people, as a result of which "it is not unusual to find a family of which the grandparents live in New England, or New York, the parents in the Middle West, and some or all of the children in the Rocky Mountain states, or in Oklahoma or in Texas." A third cause he finds in the great political parties, saying that attachment to party name is stronger here than in any other country, with the possible exception of England. A fourth cause is the great number of voluntary or-

ganizations of national scope, their periodical meetings bringing together men from all parts of the country. And finally the newspapers, providing substantially the same food for reflection to all our people, "assist powerfully in building a common national consciousness."

As a result of these influences, there is a distinctly American type of mind. Its characteristics he enumerates as follows: alertness; fairness and openness; self-reliance and independence; a highly emotional temperament, that responds quickly to a noble idea or a lofty sentiment; an optimism and self-confidence; a high standard of business honor, and a strong religious faith. The single unfavorable trait which he assigns to us is a lack of respect for law, due in part to our habit of over-legislation.

The best examples of the American type are found, he says, in the Middle West, particularly in the towns and small cities.

If one were to select a restricted area in which to study American life and American characteristics, he would do best to choose northern Illinois and the adjacent parts of Iowa, Wisconsin, and Minnesota. Here the soil is rich, the settlements are old enough to have an aspect of comfort and order, the population is well-to-do, there is little or no extreme poverty, the public schools are of the best, churches abound, and are strong in influence, and the average of intelligence and of intellectual interest is very high. The population read the best books, and take in the best magazines, reviews and weekly journals. The boys and girls are sent to college almost as a matter of course, usually in the tax-supported state universities. There is little vice, and less crime, and both the manners and morals of the people are excellent.

—*The American As He Is.*

The difference between East and West he finds is but slight: it is a difference in modes of expression rather than in modes of thought.

As to the speech of Americans, President Butler's opinion is in marked contrast with that of Henry James, quoted earlier.

Despite their numbers and their wide geographical distribution, their English speech is more uniform than that of the inhabitants of England itself. No differences of intonation, accent, or vocabulary in the United States are so great as those between the Yorkshireman and the Cornishman, or between the dwellers in Westmore-

land and those in Devon. Many so-called Americanisms are only survivals of sixteenth and seventeenth century English usages which have disappeared in the mother country. The exaggerated drawl of many Englishmen is as far from being good English as is the nasal twang of the uncultivated American. The purity of the language must rest with the educated classes who use the English speech and with the makers of its literature, and it is as safe on one side of the Atlantic as on the other.

—*The American As He Is.*

On the subject of our devotion to money-getting Dr. Butler speaks in no uncertain terms:

The American is generally supposed by Europeans and by not a few Americans who are but superficial observers of their own people, to be given over to money-getting, and to be enamoured of money for its own sake. Nothing could be farther from the fact. The American cares much less for money than the Frenchman, less even than the Englishman or the German. His main ambition is successful self-expression, the putting forth of all his powers in order to gain a desired end, or to accomplish a difficult purpose. The money that comes with success of this kind the American takes gladly as the outward and visible sign and measure of what he has done. But the money itself he treats as a toy, or,—if of finer moral calibre—as a trust, to be in some way administered for the public good, after making provision for his own family. This is the reason of the constant stream of benefactions, great and small in the United States.

—*The American As He Is.*

He finds America still the land of opportunity, saying that the men who occupy the most important positions in the United States to-day have worked themselves up from humble beginnings:

The most distinguished judges began life as struggling barristers with their own way to make. Nineteen of the men who today direct the great transportation systems of the country, and who command very large salaries, were, in every case, a short generation ago, wage-earners of the humblest kind in the service of one or another of the railroad companies. This unlimited opportunity to rise, and to rise young, acts as a perpetual stimulus to the American youth, and spurs him on to master some calling or career.

—*The American As He Is.*

Even the trusts come in for their share of commendation:

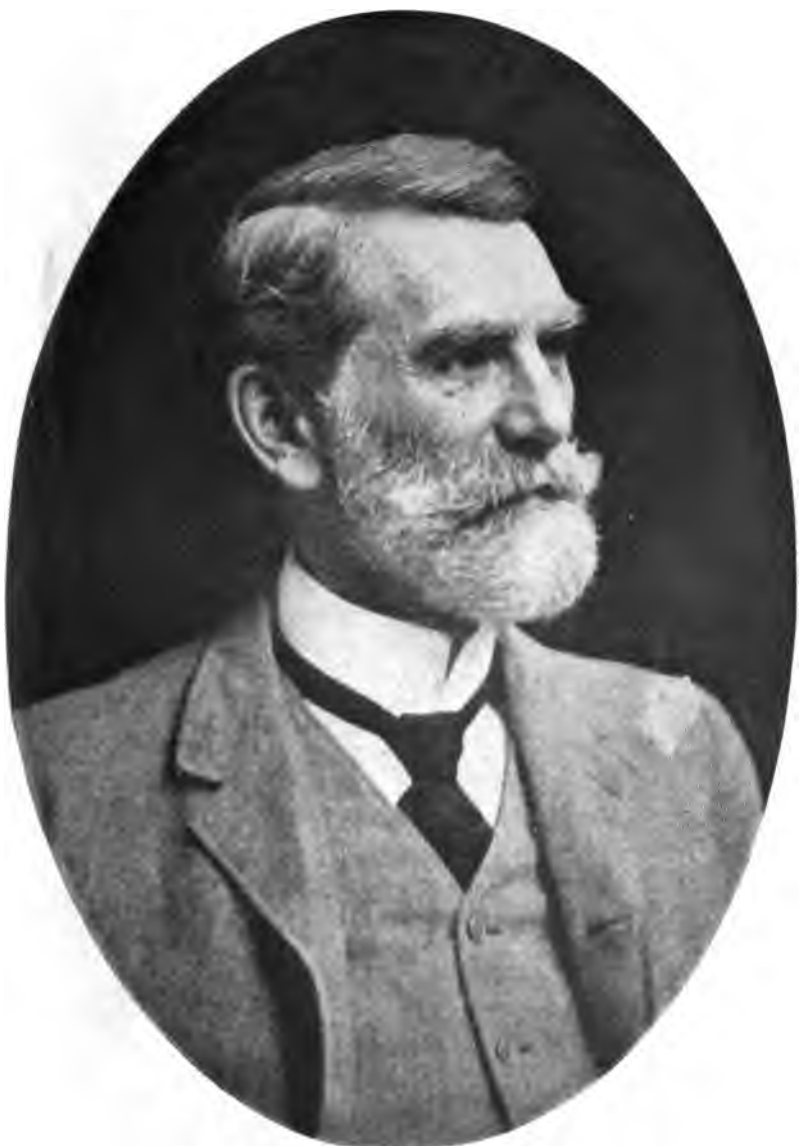
The organization of the large corporations popularly but quite improperly known as trusts, has given a strong impetus to business efficiency in America. They have greatly reduced waste in production, and they have increased productiveness while generally reducing the price of the commodities in which they deal. They have opened new and much more lucrative avenues of employment to men of capacity and zeal. They have excited the animosity of the small because they are big, and they have incurred widespread public



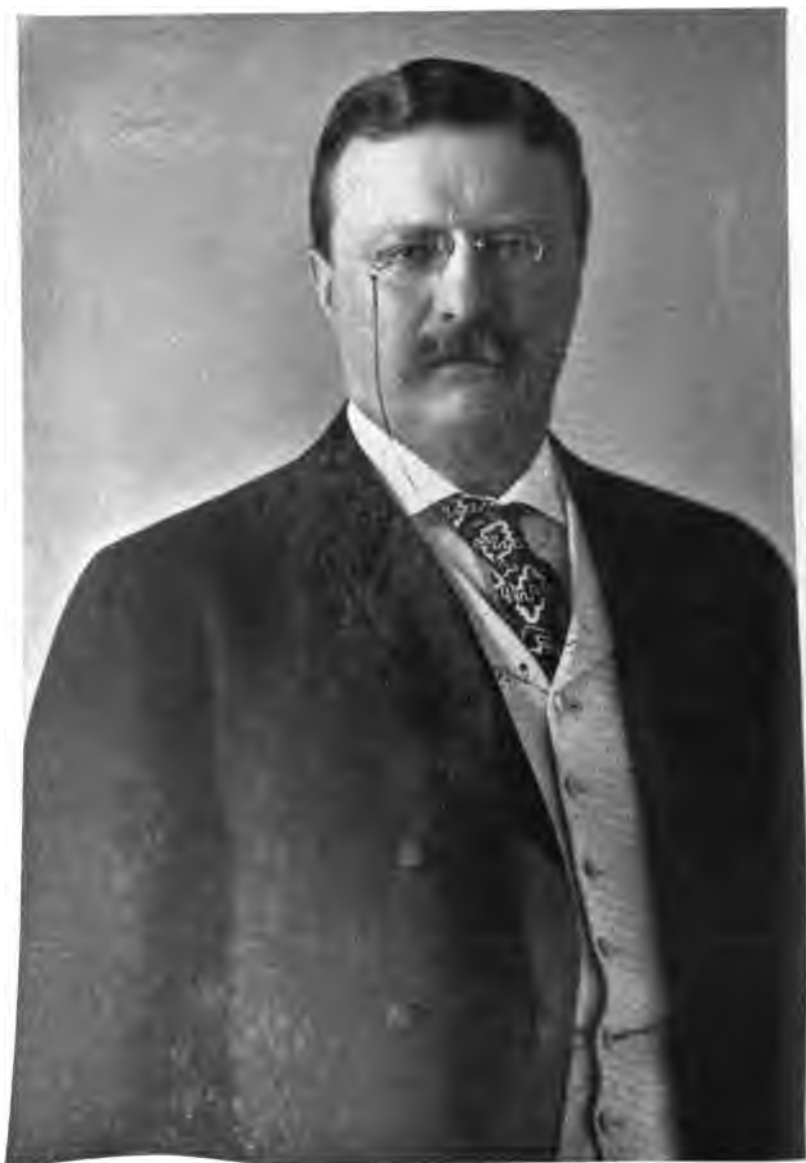
Nicholas Murray Butler



Professor Archibald Cary Coolidge, author of "The United States
as a World Power"



Josiah Strong, author of "Our Country." Courtesy of the Baker and Taylor Company



(Copyright by Pach Brothers) Theodore Roosevelt

hostility because their managers have sometimes interfered in matters of legislation, or have tried to secure special and unfair advantages from the common carriers. These abuses, however, are now correcting themselves, or are being corrected, and public sentiment in regard to the large corporations may reasonably be expected to change.

—*The American As He Is.*

The dangers of American life appear to him as few and remote. Immigration may increase beyond our power of assimilation; a popular demagogue may lead us over a political precipice; the spirit of lawlessness may carry us too far,—these things are possible but not imminent.

Taken as a whole, this picture of American life and character is certainly flattering to the sitter. Are we as good looking as that? we say, and half believe the photograph is nearer the truth than our mirror.

As President Butler explained our country to the Danes, Henry van Dyke explained it to the French. *The Spirit of America* was part of a course of lectures delivered at the University of Paris in 1908 and '09. It is even fuller in its discussion than Dr. Butler's work, and only the main points can be given here. He finds the chief traits of American character to be these five: the instinct of self-reliance, the love of fair play, the energetic will, the desire of order, the ambition of self-development. To these he adds four temperamental traits: a strong religious feeling, a sincere love of nature, a vivid sense of humor, and a deep sentiment of humanity. It is interesting to note that most of these appear in the preceding list; a notable addition is the sense of humor—one wonders how President Butler came to omit that. Dr. van Dyke's comment upon American humor is especially good:

It is not irreverent toward the realities. But for the conventionalities, the absurdities, the pomposities of life, it has a habit of friendly satire and good tempered raillery. It is not like the French wit, brilliant and pointed. It is not like the English fun, in which practical joking plays so large a part. It is not like the German joke, which announces its arrival with the sound of a trumpet. It usually wears rather a sober face and speaks with a quiet voice. It delights in exposing pretensions by gravely carrying them to the point of wild extravagance. It finds its material in subjects which

are laughable, but not odious; and in people who are ridiculous, but not hateful.

—*The Spirit of America.*

The statement that Americans have a strong desire for order appears to conflict with President Butler's lack of respect for law. Dr. van Dyke illustrates his statement by citing the behavior of American crowds, and the strong tendency to organize societies and appoint committees for all sorts of purposes. He finds in this an evidence of a social spirit that seeks its ends in an orderly way, which is not at all the same thing as compliance with legislative edicts. Dr. van Dyke's description of the American spirit of self-reliance deserves quotation:

Within the seemingly complicated politics of nation, state and town, each typical American is a person who likes to take care of himself, to have his own way, to manage his own affairs. He is not inclined to rely upon the state for aid and comfort. He wants not as much government as possible, but as little. He dislikes interference. Sometimes he resents control. He is an individual, a person, and he feels very strongly that personal freedom is what he most needs, and that he is able to make good use of a large amount of it.

—*The Spirit of America.*

In the discussion of the drawbacks or the weaknesses of the American type Dr. van Dyke is perfectly candid. Our intensity has cost us heavily. The home as an institution, as the center of life, is being crowded out a little, children and parents are growing too busy for it. Conversation is a rare accomplishment among us: the American can debate, and talk business, but he does not converse well.

Popular recreations and amusements, pleasures of the simpler kind such as are shared by masses of people on public holidays, do not seem to afford as much relaxation and refreshment in America as they do in Germany or France. Children do not take as much part in them. There is an air of effort about them, as if the minds of the people were not quite free from care. The Englishman is said to take his pleasures sadly. The American is apt to take his strenuously. . . . I think it true that a strong will-power directed chiefly to industrial success has had a hardening effect upon the general tone of life.

—*The Spirit of America.*

Our strenuous life has other drawbacks:

In laying such a heavy stress upon the value of action it is likely to overlook the part played by reflection, by meditation, by

tranquil consideration, in a sane and well-rounded character. The critical faculty is not that in which Americans excel. By this I do not mean to say that they do not find fault. They do, and often with vigor, and acerbity. But fault-finding is not criticism, in the true sense of the word. Criticism is a disinterested effort to see things as they really are, to understand their causes, their relations, their effects. . . . Clear, intelligent, thorough-going, well-balanced critics are not much in evidence in the United States; first, because the genius of the country does not tend to produce them; and second, because the taste of the people does not incline to listen to them.

—*The Spirit of America.*

An interesting observation is that upon the extent to which the native American stock still predominates in national affairs. Dr. van Dyke cites statistics to show that of our successful men, the leaders in business, politics, professions, art and science, over 86 per cent are native Americans. "The native stock has led and still leads America."

Upon our schools he comments as follows:

They are immensely democratic. They are stronger in awakening the mind than in training it. They do more to stimulate quick perception than to cultivate sound judgment and correct taste. Their principles are always good, their manners sometimes. Universal knowledge is their foible; activity is their temperament, energy and sincerity are their virtues; superficiality is their defect.

—*The Spirit of America.*

On the whole Dr. van Dyke's book gives the impression of a sincere attempt to set forth the salient features of our national life.

A third American who explained his country to a foreign nation was Professor A. C. Coolidge of Harvard, who lectured at the Sorbonne in 1906-07, on *The United States as a World Power*. As the title suggests, his book deals with our country primarily in its political aspects, yet other sides are not neglected. He names the chief American traits as follows: optimism, due to the consciousness of successful achievement; self-confidence; idealism; a strain of lawlessness, due to intense individualism; an impatience of precedent, and an impatience of careful precautions. This list makes a notable addition to the qualities given by others: idealism, although this is suggested by Dr. Butler in his explanation of the emotional temperament.

The chief importance of Professor Coolidge's book is its treatment of the Spanish American War, and its effect upon our national aims and ideals. The change wrought is thus described:

Early in the year 1901, a foreign ambassador at Washington remarked in the course of conversation that, although he had been in America only a short time, he had seen two different countries,—the United States before the war with Spain, and the United States since the war with Spain. This was a picturesque way of expressing the truth, now generally accepted, that the war of 1898 was a turning-point in the history of the American republic. . . . The change was equally decisive in the consciousness of the Americans themselves. The war aroused within them a feeling of strength which had until then been latent. It opened their eyes to new horizons, suggested new outlets for their energies, and made them confident that they could deal with problems which never before had attracted their attention. They had always been proud of their country,—aggressively so, foreigners thought,—but they had regarded it as something different from the others, and leading its own life apart. Now, all at once, they were willing to give up their isolation and plunge into the fray. They felt that the day had come when they were called upon to play a part in the broader affairs of mankind even at the cost of sacrificing some of their cherished ideals. They were indeed, unable, as well as unwilling, to return to their earlier point of view. Full of joyous self-reliance, they were prepared to meet all the difficulties and to accept all the burdens of their new position.

—*The United States as a World Power.*

Dr. Coolidge discusses at length the attitude of the American people, from the spirit of humanity which first provoked interference to save Cuba, the totally unexpected acquisition of the Philippines, the embarrassment of our situation in sending troops to put down the movement for Filipino independence, and the final acceptance of the situation, not without some compromise with our early ideals. And the result is not only a changed attitude on the part of Americans, but a change in the attitude of other nations toward us.

During most of the nineteenth century the United States had enjoyed a remarkable popularity abroad. Many Englishmen were well disposed toward it because it was inhabited by their kin: Frenchmen were proud of it because they had assisted in its creation; Russia was a traditional friend; liberals all over Europe sympathized with its democratic institutions; zealous Roman Catholics were pleased with flourishing condition of their church across the water. . . . The fame of the country's wealth and prosperity, of the ingenuity and practical abilities of its inhabitants, and es-

pecially of their eagerness to make money, was wide-spread. But in the great game of international politics they took little part. European statesmen could usually leave them out of their reckonings. . . . All this was changed by the Spanish war. Continental Europe, without defending Spanish misgovernment in Cuba, regarded the action of the Americans as brutal aggression against a smaller nation. How could it be pleased with the cry, so often raised across the sea, that European rule in the western hemisphere ought to be brought to an end? But the Americans did more than expel the Spaniards from Cuba and Porto Rico: they proved that they possessed a most efficient modern fleet, they crossed the Pacific and established themselves in the Far East, they threatened to send ships to attack Spain in her own waters. It was evident that they had assumed a new position among nations; that henceforth they would have to be counted with as one of the chief forces in international affairs. . . . The former easy popularity of the United States was gone, probably never to return. Some idealists mournfully declared that what the Union had gained in political importance it had lost in moral greatness; that it had forfeited its real eminence and was now only one more huge, aggressive, selfish power. Be this as it may, its situation, for better or for worse, was radically changed in the eyes of the outside world.

—*The United States as a World Power.*

As to the results of our rule in new possessions, Professor Coolidge comments as follows:

It is still too early to sum up the results of American rule in the last eight years. In many ways it has been a disappointment, for up to the present time it has brought neither content nor general prosperity. Serious mistakes have been made in details. Taxation is heavy, and there is room for criticism about the way in which some of the money has been spent. It seems, too, as if a common mistake in French colonization had been repeated in creating an unnecessarily elaborate administrative machine. The salaries paid to the American officials appear unwarrantably high to the natives, who flatter themselves that they could do as well for much lower pay. Unfortunately this grievance is unavoidable; if we admit that Americans are needed at all, we must also admit that what is wanted is the best, and that these can only be obtained by a remuneration which shall be some sort of recompense for the sacrifices demanded by a life in the distant tropics. . . . Criticise as one may the details of the present policy, no impartial observer will deny that since 1898 the Americans have accomplished a great deal in their task of transforming the islands. Improved means of communication, public works of all kinds, modern sanitation, justice, public security, honest and efficient government, and a system of general education form a record to be proud of.

—*The United States as a World Power.*

Of the problems of Americans at home, Professor Coolidge regards the race question as the most serious. The negro problem has new and threatening aspects:

In the South, at the present time, the relations between the

two races are, to say the least, very unsatisfactory,—worse, perhaps, than they were twenty years ago. Among the negroes, there exists a sullen resentment at the loss of their political rights, as well as at the increasing tendency to segregate them in the public conveyances, and, in general, to impress upon them unmistakably that they belong to a lower order of mankind. Among the whites, the fear of negro rule has grown into a perfect frenzy of wrath against whatever appears like an assertion on the part of the colored population of political or of social equality. Even their education is regarded with a suspicion that reminds one of the days of slavery, and the situation with regard to lynching is terrible. When the whites in country districts get to feel that their women, unless accompanied are not safe against assault a few hundred yards from their own homes, their exasperation makes them capable of any act of savagery. An epidemic of social crime on the one hand has engendered an epidemic of wild, lawless punishment on the other, leaving both sides more embittered than ever.

—*The United States as a World Power.*

And out of this has grown a political situation which is at variance with our national ideals and with our constitution:

Experience since the Civil War has proved that the southern whites will go to almost any lengths rather than submit to "black domination." That the South, with its inherited slave-holding traditions, is an absolute unit on this point may not be surprising. What is surprising is that within the lifetime of thousands of men who fought for the freedom of the slaves, the victorious North has accepted the Southern view to such a degree that the dominant Republican party has submitted with very little murmuring, to a series of laws on the part of the Southern States designed to evade, if they do not actually violate, the amendments to the Constitution guaranteeing equality to the negro.

—*The United States as a World Power.*

Thus here, as in the Philippines, we are confronted with a direct contradiction between our national ideals and our national practice. On the one side are the principles of liberty and equality, principles established by the Declaration of Independence, and secured by the Constitution, principles which for a century had been regarded as a sacred thing, as our most precious inheritance. On the other side, our action in denying these rights to the Filipino, the Porto Rican and the negro, place us as a nation in the unpleasant position of having to choose between modifying our principles, or else standing convicted of national hypocrisy.

And our race prejudice is not confined to the negro. The anti-Chinese and anti-Japanese feeling is strong enough

to control the action of Congress. The anti-Jewish feeling is a more recent thing.

There is in the United States an anti-Semitic feeling, new in its present intensity, and, as in France, quite at variance with the traditions of two generations ago. In most American cities few or no outspoken Jews will be found in fashionable society; and even in the universities in which they are at all numerous, they are left much to themselves by the other students. The subject is rather carefully avoided by the newspapers; for the American Jews are already a power to be feared, and quick to take offense.

—*The United States as a World Power.*

On the subject of our economic position, Professor Coolidge shows that we are the capitalists of the world:

The economic progress of the United States in the last few years has inevitably influenced the national policy in various ways, and will continue to do so. Until a short time ago the country belonged to the debtor rather than to the creditor class of states. It was well off, but it had no investments of consequence beyond its borders, and it owed the development of its resources in part to foreign capital. Today the situation is radically different: the Americans have bought back much of their paper formerly held abroad, and, though they are continually borrowing afresh in order to carry out the countless undertakings in which they are engaged, they are no longer in the same situation as before. There is a distinction between the poor man who has to ask for a loan from a well-to-do neighbor in order to set his business going, and the wealthy financier who invites others to take shares in a profitable enterprise; and the United States is now in the position of the latter. It still needs foreign capital, but the Americans are themselves the greatest capitalists in the world.

—*The United States as a World Power.*

The significance of this book, then, lies in its presentation of the fact that our national ideals have been modified in practice, first by the virtual disfranchisement of the negro in the South, and second by the result of the Spanish-American War, leading to a policy of imperialism rather than of democracy.

Theodore Roosevelt has set forth his views upon our national life in two volumes, *American Ideals* and *The New Nationalism*. He does not attempt to enumerate the characteristics of the American, indeed, there is a notable absence of broad generalization in these books. Certain specific problems, however, are treated with directness. The dangers of American life he states as follows:

If I were asked to name the three influences which I thought

were most dangerous to the perpetuity of American institutions, I should name corruption in business and politics alike; lawless violence, and mendacity, especially when used in connection with slander.

—*The New Nationalism.*

The danger from lawless violence, he says, we most often have to face from among the people who have least of the world's goods; the danger of corruption, from the people who have the most of the world's goods. Of slander he says:

No greater harm can be done to the body politic than by those men who, through reckless and indiscriminate accusation of good men and bad men, honest men and dishonest men alike, finally so hopelessly puzzle the public that they do not believe that any man in public life is entirely straight; while, on the other hand, they lose all indignation against the man who really is crooked.

—*The New Nationalism.*

A fault in our national life he finds to be the political indifference of many citizens:

The man who is content to let politics go from bad to worse, jesting at the corruption of politicians, the man who is content to see the maladministration of justice without an immediate and resolute effort to reform it, is shirking his duty and is preparing the way for infinite woe in the future. Hard, brutal indifference to the right, and an equally brutal shortsightedness as to the inevitable results of corruption and injustice, are baleful beyond measure; and yet they are characteristic of a great many Americans who think themselves perfectly respectable, and who are considered thriving by their easy-going fellow-citizens.

—*American Ideals.*

The reason why the good citizen must go into politics is that the special interests must be driven out.

Our government, national and state must be freed from the sinister influence, or control of special interests. Exactly as the special interests of cotton and slavery threatened our political integrity before the Civil War, so now the great special business interests too often control and corrupt the men and methods of government for their own profit. We must drive the special interests out of politics. That is one of our tasks today. . . .

Every special interest is entitled to justice, but not one is entitled to a vote in Congress, to a voice on the bench, or to representation in any public office.

—*American Ideals.*

The Panama Canal, a subject passed over by most writers whom we have been considering, he regards as of the greatest importance:

If a man of intelligence who had never left the country asked me whether I would advise him to make a short trip to Europe or a trip to the Panama Canal, I would without hesitation advise

him to go to the Panama Canal. He would there see in operation the completing of one of the great achievements of modern times. Colonel Goethals, and the men working under him, are rendering a service to this country which can only be paralleled in our past history by some of the services rendered in certain wars. No feat of the kind or of anything like the magnitude has ever been successfully carried out, and hardly ever been attempted. No other nation has to its credit a task of such magnitude, of such importance, as we will have three years hence when that canal is completed.

—*The New Nationalism.*

In general, Mr. Roosevelt offers less of interpretation than the other writers. Interpretation, indeed, is not his purpose; he aims to tell us what we should do rather than to analyze our characteristics. The point of view is not that of the philosopher but of the practical man.

Quite in contrast with this is the attitude of Henry D. Sedgwick, author of *The New American Type*. Seeing a gallery of portraits of distinguished Americans, he proceeds to draw inferences as to the characteristics of our people. Our women of fashion as Sargent portrays them, are thus described:

The obvious qualities in his portraits are disquiet, lack of equilibrium, absence of principle; a general sense of migrating tenants, of distrainer and replevin, of a mind unoccupied by the rightful heirs, as if the home of principle and dogma had been transformed into an inn for wayfarers. Sargent's women are more marked than his men; women, as physically more delicate, are the first to reveal the strain of physical and psychical maladjustment. The thin spirit of life shivers pathetically in its "fleshy dress," and yet in the intensity of its eagerness it is all unconscious of its spiritual fidgeting on finding itself astray—no path, no blazings, the old forgotten, the new not formed, these are signs that accompany the birth and development of a new species. . . . The American woman's body, too slight for a rich animal life, too frail for deep maternal feelings, seems a kind of temporary makeshift, as if life were a hasty and probably futile experience.

—*The New American Type.*

The portraits of men suggest that in them the new type is more completely attained, and that as a type it has serious shortcomings:

These male portraits indicate that the logical, the intellectual, the imaginative, the romantic faculties have been discarded and shaken off, doubtless because they did not tend to procure the success coveted by the nascent variety; and, in their stead, keen, exceedingly simple powers of vision and action are developing. This type is found in Sargent, Frank, Hall, Bonnat, Chase, Richard Hall.

Perhaps the best example is the portrait entitled Mr. Daniel Lamont by Zorn. Too great stress cannot be laid on the impression we make upon quick-sighted foreigners. This portrait represents a shrewd, prompt, quick, keen, compact man, well, almost brilliantly, equipped for dealing with the immediate present; he has the morale of the tennis player, concentration, utter absorption, in volley and take. Of faculties needful to deal with the remote imagination, logic, intellect, faith—there is no trace. Craft, the power that deals with a few facts close at hand, is depicted in abundance; so are promptitude and vigor; reason, the power that deals with many facts, remote, recalcitrant, which require the mind to hold many pictured combinations at once or in quick succession,—is not there.

—*The New American Type.*

Of course the obvious answer to such a criticism is that these portraits represent not typical Americans but a small class. The women whom Sargent paints are leaders of fashionable society; the men are the great captains of industry. Neither these men nor these women represent the average American.

The conflict between our theory and our practices is discussed at some length by Mr. Sedgwick:

The American believes that all men are born free and equal, that they possess an inalienable right to pursue their own happiness; but if one questions one's casual neighbors one will find a contradiction between their professed beliefs and their real beliefs. They agree that men ought to be free: but the employer says his workmen shall not combine in trades unions, and the workman says all workmen in his trade must belong to the union. They agree that all men are equal; but the man of fashion thinks there is a marked inequality between those whose fathers are rich and those whose fathers are poor; the Christian sees an inequality between himself and a Jew; the Southerner between himself and a negro; the man of European birth between himself and an Asiatic. Prosperous people in general believe their fellow-men have an inalienable right to seek happiness, but deny them the right to seek happiness in socialism. . . .

We are none the less honest,—we are a people with a native love of phrases. Phraseology is that form of art which we understand the best. We cling to a phrase made by one of our patriot fathers, a phrase of the best periods,—and no more dream of parting with it because it does not represent any living idea than a man would part with a Gainsborough portrait of his great-great-grandfather. It is like an ancestral chair in the parlor, not to be sat upon.

—*The New American Type.*

He holds that our pre-occupation with industrial life has made us strong in that direction but weak in every other. The spiritual element in our life he finds but feeble, for we have tried to make our spiritual life a thing apart, quite separate from the ordinary business of living. Our art has

suffered, our poetry lacks passion, our morality is one-sided. "We have been swept off our feet by the brilliant success of our industrial civilization, and blinded by vanity, we enumerate the list of our exports, we measure the swelling tide of our material prosperity, but we do not stop here to repeat to ourselves the names of other things."

It is time to draw together the scattered threads of this article, and of earlier ones, to make if possible a summary of the various criticisms upon our national life. These may be arranged in three groups, dealing respectively with the conditions of American life; with our national problems, and with the traits of the typical American.

Concerning political conditions, there is substantial agreement as to the existence of wide-spread corruption, which extends from the petty "graft" of local politicians to the control of legislatures and of members of the United States Senate. Equally conclusive is the testimony that within the past decade there has been a marked improvement in conditions, due to an arousing of the civic conscience.

Industrially our people are more prosperous than any other in the world, yet this prosperity is very unequally distributed, and large groups of workers receive less than a living wage. This is particularly true of women, and to this must be added the statement that child labor has increased to an alarming extent. The growing frequency of strikes, and the bitterness with which such contests are waged, are evidence of an increasing hostility between labor and capital, an ominous sign.

Intellectually, we have established a vast public school system, opened libraries everywhere, and pour forth floods of periodical literature, yet the number of Americans who have made intellectual contributions of the first rank is not great.

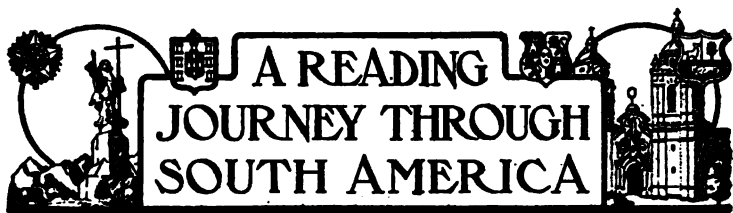
Socially, we have in this country an aristocracy based upon wealth, which in its higher circles is quite as worldly

and as selfish as aristocracy elsewhere, and somewhat more ostentatious.

Of our national problems the negro question appears to be the most serious, nor has any wholly satisfactory solution yet been offered. The problem of immigration is far easier to regulate, yet the fact that immigration has steadily grown larger in volume and less desirable in kind, without any appreciable check through legislation, leads to the fear that selfish interests may make this a serious menace. The problem of great fortunes means that tremendous power is lodged in the hands of a few men: it must be granted that the cases in which this power has been abused are but few. The problems of our cities are due in part to the large foreign population, in part to municipal misgovernment, and to bad industrial conditions, so they are but parts of larger problems.

The characteristics of the average American, as reported by our critics, are as follows: In temperament, he is alert, nervous, excitable and energetic; in manner he is frank and open rather than polished; in disposition he is self-confident, self-reliant, and optimistic. He has a strong ambition, and a hunger for knowledge. His dealings with men are marked by a love of fair play; toward women he shows a high chivalry. He is good-natured, tolerant, with a quick sympathy for the unfortunate, and a deep religious feeling. He has a strong sense of humor, and a generosity which is not bounded by race or sect. His faults are an impatience of precedent, a lack of respect for law, and a tendency to attach too much importance to material success, forgetting those things which feed the spirit.

And yet the last word cannot be said, the portrait cannot be finished, for the features of the sitter are slowly, subtly changing even while they are being recorded. For the America of today is not the America of yesterday, and in that fact lies both our fear and our hope.



IX. Venezuela and the Guianas*

Harry Weston VanDyke†

VENEZUELA.

AT the end of his "swing around the circle" of South American countries (having begun with Brazil), the traveller comes to what is probably the most interesting of all—the United States of Venezuela—the huge republic that bulges out into the northernmost nub of the continent, where the terminal ranges of the Andes turn eastward to meet the great Guiana Highlands and form those high-flung ramparts that protect the fertile, low-lying Amazon plains from the Atlantic. This black, mountainous front runs along the Caribbean for some fifteen hundred miles, broken at intervals, however, where the lovely blue of the tropical sea sweeps inland to meet the bright green of some great river basin.

Southward, Venezuela spreads down over an irregularly shaped territory extending from 12 degrees north latitude to the equator. Her varied topography produces almost every change of climate, from the cold of the verdure-covered mountains—some of whose peaks reach high enough

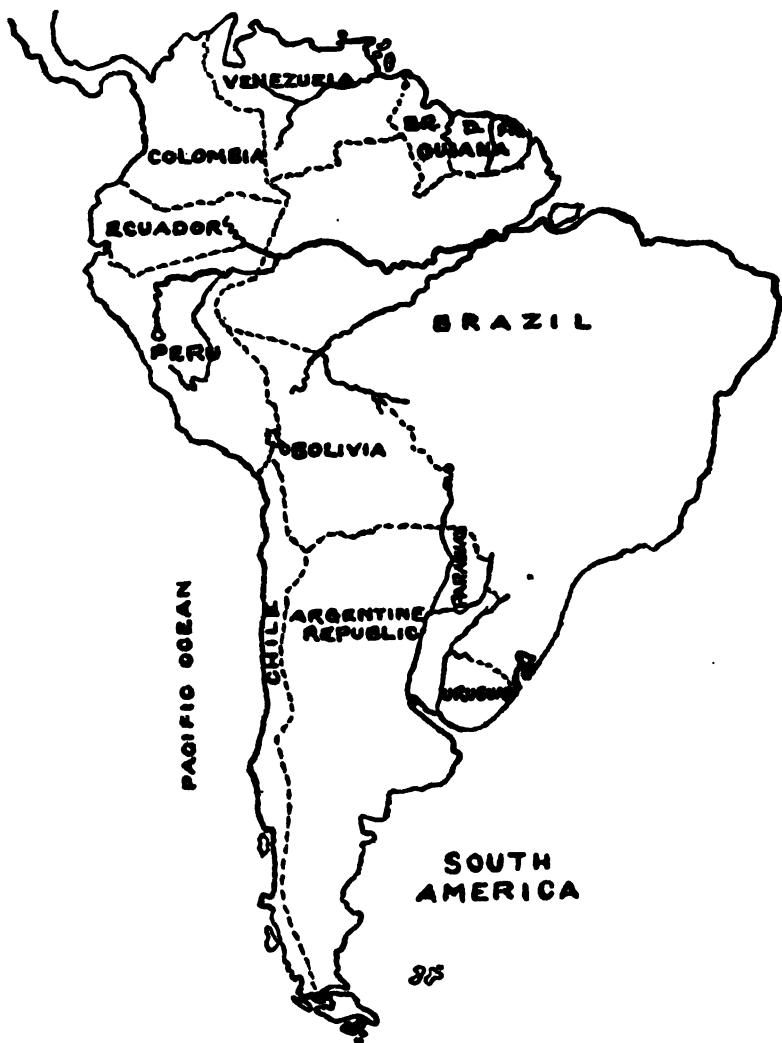
*Copyright, 1912, by Harry Weston VanDyke.

Previous instalments of this series are "Discovery and Conquest" in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for September, 1911, "Colonial Period and War of Independence," October, 1911, "Brazil," November, 1911, "Argentina," December, 1911, "Uruguay, Paraguay, and Bolivia," January, 1912, "Peru," February, 1912, "Chile," March, 1912, "Ecuador and Colombia," April, 1912. The series ends with this issue.

†Member of the Bar of Washington, D. C., and Licenciado in Spanish Law. Recommended by and co-operating with the Pan-American Union, Hon. John Barrett, Director General.

to earn the title of *nevada*—down through the temperate weather of the *llanos*, or rolling plains that slope off into the great Orinoco basins, where wheat, corn and cattle abound, and the country's great staples, coffee, cacao, sugar, cotton and tobacco are grown, to the hot Orinoco jungles that trail off to the south, where rubber trees luxuriate without cultivation. More than half of Venezuela's territory may be ignored from the commercial standpoint of to-day, for it is either Alaskan or Amazonian and can be reserved for later needs of the human family when, as Humboldt prophesied, the Amazon valley will become the feeding ground of mankind.

No description has ever done justice to the beauties of Venezuela's landscape of mountain and valley and mighty rivers, of warm green pastures and blue skies, and the mystic shimmering white of an occasional snow-capped peak. The country that so appeals to the traveller's interest is nearly six hundred thousand square miles in area and could include within its confines the states of Iowa, Wisconsin, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois and Ohio. Its rocky coast saw the beginning of the European invasion of the new world; Columbus, Vespucci and Ojeda touched here, the last named giving the country its name. Cumaná, in the middle east of the coast line is the oldest European settlement in America; it was in its old church that Las Casas preached. This saintly priest was the Indians' only friend in the early days of Spanish devastation, but, with regret be it said, he was also the reputed father of African slavery in the new world. The white-walled cities that huddle among the mountains on the coast formed the Spanish Main of romance. Venezuela was the birthplace of the resistance to Spain's oppression of her colonies, and of Miranda, Bolívar, Sucre and the fiery young patriot, Yañez—the men who led the van of that resistance. Through the country flows one of the world's greatest rivers, the Orinoco, with four thousand miles of navigable waters. The vast productiveness of the country



and its stores of mineral wealth, are sufficient to sustain twenty times its present population of two millions and a half. And, finally, Venezuela is nearer to us than any country in South America.

A most agreeable route for the traveller leaving Colombian ports for Venezuela, is by the steamers which zigzag around the Caribbean Sea for ten days or more on the way to Europe, and touch at many forgotten ports of the Spanish Main before reaching La Guayra, the port of Caracas.

Immediately after leaving Colombian waters and rounding the Guajira peninsula, the ship enters the great Gulf of Maracaibo, one hundred and fifty miles in extent from east to west, and sixty miles from north to south. Passing along in through a narrow strait, the almost equally large Lake of Maracaibo swells out before the traveller. This great body of water drains an extensive basin lying between two terminal spurs of the Andes—the Sierra de Parija and the Sierra Mérida—and into it flow many rivers fed by the surrounding mountains. Inside, on the east bank of the strait, lies the city of Maracaibo, now one of the most important centers on the north coast, for here is shipped the produce of the vast fertile region of western Venezuela—coffee, cacao, tobacco, castor bean, hard wood timber and dye woods. Much of the produce of the eastern slope of Colombia also finds its way to Europe and the States through this port; fully half of what is known in our markets as “Maracaibo coffee” is really a Colombian product.

The tropical scenery of the plains sloping down to the Lake and the surrounding mountains with their suggestion of snowy freshness, make the setting of this port one of the most interesting on the continent. A dozen or more of the peaks in the Mérida range are snow-capped and two of them—Concha and Coluna—rise to a height of over fifteen thousand feet. Years ago a passing visitor to Maracaibo, mistaking the discomforts of the humidity and heat for general dissolution, pronounced the place “the graveyard of



The Cathedral, Caracas. This structure was begun in 1641, and for many years contained the remains of the Great Liberator



Caracas, Venezuela



View of Caracas from El Calvario Hill

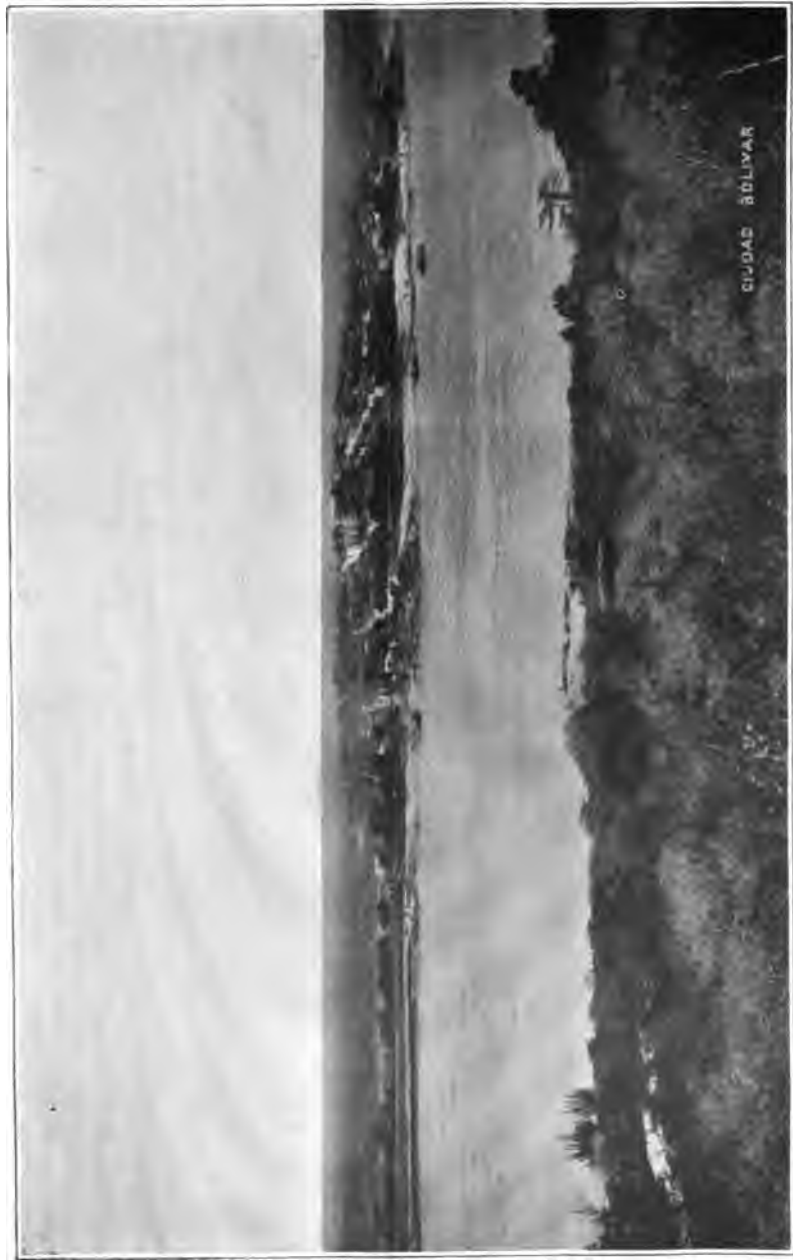


Mausoleum of Bolívar in the National Pantheon at Caracas. This notable work of art by Tenerani, the famous Italian sculptor, is considered one of his masterpieces





Maracaibo, Venezuela. View of the city looking west from the Cathedral



The city of Ciudad Bolívar. View across the Orinoco river



Up the cliffs at La Guaira



National theater, Caracas

Europeans." Such hasty judgment is a great injustice, for the rate of mortality is less here than in many other tropical seaports.

Built out on the lake, on stilts, lay the little Indian village that caught the eye of Ojeda, when that early navigator visited the shores. Its fanciful resemblance to the city on the Adriatic suggested to him the name of "Little Venice" for the settlement he established here. In the course of time the absurdly inappropriate, though most euphonious Spanish diminutive, *Venezuela*, came to be applied to the whole country—a mountainous region bigger than the whole of Italy and Spain combined.

Rounding the eastern enclosure of the Gulf, the Paraguana peninsula, the traveller comes upon the quaint old town of Coro, founded in 1527, and one of the very first of the European settlements. Until 1576 it was the seat of Spain's government of the colony, and is now the capital of the State of Falcón. Here, also, Miranda made his first resistance to Spanish misrule at the beginning of the revolutionary war. Coro is but a few miles south of the Dutch Island of Curaçao, that most picturesque fragment of Amsterdam perched on a coral rock.

Sweeping out eastward over the sea, as if in continuation of the Mérida range, is the Cordillera de la Silla (the "Saddle Range"), which terminates abruptly at Cape Codera. Midway between this cape and Coro, lies the important seaboard city of Puerto Cabello. Its environment is not only remarkably attractive—like an oasis to the traveller who has sailed along the bleak coast range for many hours—but it is to-day one of the finest harbors in the known world. as it was in the days of the early navigators who said of it "a vessel is safe here anchored by a single hair (*cabello*)."

The city is connected by rail, over the Silla Cordillera, with the prosperous little city of Valencia some fifty miles distant, and thence, by waters of Lake Valencia, with Cura and other important inland towns that are commercial centers of a

large part of the region that slopes inland from the coast range. Puerto Cabello is, therefore, the export depot of the States of Carabobo, Lara and Zamora, three of the most productive commonwealths of the Venezuelan federal union. It was once a rendezvous of the buccaneers and, later, the scene of General Páez's astonishing night attack on the royalist forces during the revolution, when with his small command, he forced the surrender of General Calzada's entire army. To-day the city has a population of about ten thousand, and many modern improvements—electricity, water supply, well paved streets and a number of attractive new buildings that harmonize, however, with the fine old plazas and colonial residences.

Eastward some sixty-five miles towards Cape Codera, and half way the length of the Silla range, the traveller sights the great peak of Picacho rising from the water's edge to a height of over 7,000 ft. Along this promontory, on a narrow strip of beach, are scattered groups of sixteenth century houses, white and red-topped for the most part; some of them nestle inland in coves of the mountains or look over the blue Caribbean from shelves of the cliffs above. This is La Guayra, the seaport of the republic's capital. High above, overhanging the business center of the town, stands the ancient and picturesque Spanish fortress of early colonial days, and just below, on another bench of rock, may be seen the old bull ring. Overlooking all, on a high bluff, are the ruins of the old castle which was the residence of the Captain-General during the Spanish régime. To those who have enjoyed Kingsley's great novel, "Westward Ho!", the old ruins will have a romantic interest, for it was from the walls of this fortress-castle that Amyas Leigh escaped after his vain attempt to rescue the Rose of Devon; the whole Venezuelan coast has been made romantic by the tales of Charles Kingsley.

Baron Humboldt said that there is but one place in the world that can rival La Guayra in the grandeur of its set-

ting—Santa Cruz de Teneriffe which points one of the Canary Islands off the Moroccan coast. La Guayra is now all business, but not business of the feverishly bustling kind, as the arriving visitor will find, after an entire morning spent in passing from one leisurely official to another in the effort to enter the country. The port usually serves the traveller merely as a landing place on his way to Caracas. If for any reason, however, he should prefer to delay his visit to the capital, he would do well to run up the coast some three miles east of the port city, to the pleasant little watering place, Macuto, the resort of the leisure class of the nearby capital.

Caracas is but seven miles inland from the port as the crow flies, but the actual distance by rail is twenty-two miles. The steep, winding road was started by American enterprise, and at a cost of over \$100,000 per mile. It is now controlled by Englishmen, and so great is the traffic, that the little line never fails to be busy. For two hours the train zigzags up the perilous ascent to a height of three thousand feet before it turns sharply around a dizzy precipice and enters the beautiful valley of Caracas. Until this turn is made the traveller is rarely ever shut off from the gorgeous blue of the Caribbean. So superb is the constantly changing view, that he will feel more than repaid for the sensations of giddiness that may assail him as the train swings around the many curves on the route, and the yawning chasms overlooked from the car windows are but added beauties to the scene, instead of death traps, for so excellent is the construction and so efficient the management that there has never been an accident along the entire length.

Caracas is usually much on the visitor's mind during the days of his approach. His mental picture doubtless will have been colored from some newspaper cut of a dirty, tatterdemalion crew, entitled "The President's Body Guard" or by the equally deceptive idea of chaotic civic affairs. But he will by this time have learned, from his visits to other

Venezuelan centers, that this charming and progressive country has been greatly maligned by our North American press. He will be entirely reassured the instant the train comes to a stop and he descends at the clean, pleasant little station and, in cab or trolley car, enters the fine old Spanish metropolis, rich in creature comforts, dignity, history and civic pride. Its population now exceeds seventy thousand, in which there is but a small percentage of citizens of foreign birth.

Unquestionably Caracas is one of the most delightful places of residence in the world. It lies in a valley three thousand feet up from the sea, on either side of which rise ranges of mountains to a height of about seven and nine thousand feet, respectively. The tropical heat of this latitude is tempered to perpetual spring by reason of the high altitude and the luxuriant fertility resulting from the misty rains sprayed from the mountains, make of the city and its environs a garden of astonishing beauty. One old gentleman, retired from the British diplomatic service after many years in Caracas, preferred to end his days here, where, he said, it was "but a step to Paradise."

The city is laid out in the usual Spanish colonial scheme—in streets running at right angles to each other, forming blocks of nearly uniform size. Prior to the liberation from Spain, the streets bore names expressive of the dominant influence of religion in the city's life—names that seem strange to us now: *Encarnación del Hijo de Dios* (Incarnation of the Son of God), *Dulce Nombre de Jesus* (Sweet Name of Jesus), *Presentación del Niño Jesus en el Templo* (Presentation of the Child Jesus in the Temple), *Huido á Egipto* (Flight to Egypt), and many others of like import—a custom prevalent in most of the ancient cities of Spain and her colonies, and one which still prevails in Cuba. Fronting on the narrow, paveless streets are the plastered, red-tiled houses found in all North Andean cities; behind the bars the pretty Venezuelan girls look out from their cloistered seclusion with the same wistfulness that is noted in Bogotá or Lima.

A few days of sight-seeing in and about the capital is well worth while, no matter what the purpose of the visit to Venezuela. The House of Congress is on the road to everywhere; inside it the decorations and frescoes are exceptionally fine, and perpetuate many of the principal events in the life of the nation. Miraflores, the appropriately named home of Venezuela's president, is open to visitors at certain hours. In the Pantéon, to the north of the city, repose the remains of Bolívar in a superb tomb of Parian marble. Upon it stands a statue of the Liberator, wrapped in his military cloak—a noble and dignified figure. In front of the cathedral is the broad Plaza Bolívar in the center of which, amidst a profusion of tropical plants, rises the equestrian statue of the nation's hero. Another may be seen in Bolívar Park on which front several federal buildings; the coins bear Bolívar's name, and the largest state of the Union, as well as its capital, Ciudad Bolívar, is similarly honored—everywhere throughout the republic, his name is revered as is Washington's with us. In the museum of the University, in a room kept sacred as the "Holiest of Holies," are displayed the Liberator's clothing, saddle, boots and spurs, and many relics intimately connected with his brilliant career. Among them is the portrait of Washington, sent him by Cústis, bearing the inscription, "This picture of the Liberator of North America is sent by his adopted son to him who acquired equal glory in South America."

The white group of buildings of the Vargas Hospital on the heights near the city, presents a beautiful picture against the mountains in the background. This is one of the most extensive and best equipped in America—either North or South. In the Academia de Bellas Artes are displayed the works of Michelena, a son of Caracas, whose paintings have obtained an international reputation, and many other pictures by native artists from which one may get a good idea of the great scenic beauty of Venezuela.

Although there are no active volcanoes in Venezuela,

the country has been subject to many destructive earthquakes, notably in 1812, when Caracas was nearly destroyed at a cost of some twelve thousand lives. As a consequence of the constant presence of this menace, the buildings of the capital are almost uniformly of one story. From the Monte Calvario on the outskirts of the city, the general aspect is flat and monotonous, but a walk through the broader avenues and the fifteen or more parks and plazas, gives to the visitor vistas of foliage and flowers that leave on his mind the impression of a lovely garden.

The capital is connected by railway with Puerto Cabello, via Lake Valencia. This is the attractive scenic route that is made a part of the Caribbean excursions offered by the steamship lines each winter. The road passes through indescribably beautiful mountains and *llanos*—alternating wooded slopes and meadows, and richly productive fields of maize and wheat. Frequent stops are made at the stations of important plantations or the busy centers of this great agricultural region: La Victoria, San Mateo and Valencia, the last named, a modernized city of forty thousand inhabitants and the capital of the State of Carabobo, one hundred and thirty-seven miles from Caracas.

Turning back along the coast, eastward, and passing the last of the coast ranges, the Carib mountains, which taper off to the sharp point of the Paria peninsula, the traveller comes to the Island of Trinidad which helps to enclose the Gulf of Paria. This island is now a British possession and is famous for its asphalt lakes; it is also the point at which Columbus stopped on his third voyage and met the fresh waters from the Orinoco delta, thus becoming convinced that he was confronted by a great continent. He gave the island its name when he observed from his masthead the three high peaks on its northern coast.

The deltaic region of the Orinoco river basin extends for about four hundred and fifty miles in a southeasterly direction from the mountain ridge on the Paria peninsula

to the British Guiana highlands, and covers an area of seven thousand square miles. Here the traveller enters a country of wild, tropical forests, mangrove swamps and maze-like waterways, teeming with strange bird and animal life—practically the same primeval land of mystery that terrified the first navigators.

The delta is made up of fifty or more channels emptying into the Atlantic north of the main stream of the Orinoco. The region is entered by the Royal Mail through the central channel, or Macareo river. The service of ocean steamers, however, extends as yet only as far as Ciudad Bolívar, about six hundred miles from the mouth, although the river is navigable for smaller vessels as far as Apures rapids—over a thousand miles up its course on the Colombian frontier. For fifteen hundred miles the wonderful stream extends into the continent, draining a territory of three hundred and sixty-four thousand square miles. With its numerous affluents, the Orinoco affords four thousand, three hundred miles of navigable waters for the service of this vast region. The main river rises in the Parima mountains, which, with the Pacarima range, forms the frontier with Brazil. Near its source it is tapped by the Casiquiare river which flows also into the Rio Negro, an affluent to the Amazon.

The traveller entering the Orinoco from the sea never forgets his first impressions. There is a weird grandeur about the deep green forests that cannot be described—the magnificent trees, closely grouped and undergrown with mangrove and tropical jungle plants that create a dense black-shadowed land of mystery which is made ever more uncanny to the new-comer by the startling cries of the jaguar and puma and the queer howling monkeys. Amid the rich and varied foliage are everywhere conspicuous the thick, leathery leaves of such plants as flourish only beneath the bright skies of the tropics, where the glorious crowns of leafage never lose that freshness and brilliance which is assumed by northern woodlands only in the lovely season of early

spring. Hence the darker tones blending with the flitting shafts of sunlight develop a play of color effects of never-ending delight to the lover of nature. Countless creepers twine themselves around the great tree trunks, forming here and there dense masses of foliage bathed in most dazzling colors. In many places natural bowers are thrown up displaying a beauty and symmetry which could not be surpassed by the most consummate art. The flame-colored flamingo and strange birds of brilliant plumage, and the chattering parrots add the necessary touch of life to make the whole a scene of fairy land.

South of the Orinoco there is a gradual rise to the Guiana Highlands which are as yet sparsely populated and but little given over to cultivation; this hilly country, constituting about half of the republic's area, ascends in uneven ridges to the higher altitudes of the Brazilian frontier ranges. North of the river the rolling plains, or *llanos*, sweep inland from the Atlantic between the Guiana Highlands and the coast ranges like a great green arm of the sea—past the Mérida sierra and the western escarpment of the Highlands, to merge in the hot plains of the Amazon region. These *llanos* do not correspond exactly with the Argentine *pampas*; they undulate and ascend gradually from the river bottoms to an elevation of over three hundred feet, when they continue on up into the foothills of the coast mountains. They are thus known as *llanos altos*, or upper plains, and *llanos bajos*, or lower plains. The *llanos* present a diversified aspect, with much broken ground and heavily wooded tracts near the upper courses of the Orinoco affluents, and clothed, in some of the lower stretches, with rich tropical vegetation.

In this fertile agricultural and grazing country lies the future wealth of the nation, for although coal and iron have been discovered within its boundaries in practicable quantities, Venezuela's production is confined to-day to coffee (the leading export), cacao, sugar, cotton, indigo, rubber, cereals,



Bread fruit tree



River San José, at its junction with the Tuy and Stramina rivers, State of Bermudez



Scene on a coffee plantation in Venezuela



Exterior of the Pan American Building, Washington, D. C.



Patio of the Pan American Building, Washington, D. C., typical of those seen universally throughout South America

cattle, hides, aigrette plumes, gold, sarsaparilla and other medicinal plants, cabinet woods and fruits. Venezuela also possesses three of the world's most important asphalt deposits—on Pedernales island in the Gulf of Paria, at Cumaná, and near Maracaibo. The foreign trade of Venezuela last year approximated \$26,730,000, the great bulk of which was with Europe; but \$7,400,000 of her products reached our shores.

The population of Venezuela is made up of Indians, *mestizos* and unmixed descendants of the Spanish; but few North Americans are settled in the country thus far, in spite of its nearness to the United States. A better acquaintance between our people and the Venezuelan land of promise should result from the opening of the Panama Canal. This most desirable consummation will operate to the benefit of both peoples, for, being but six days from New York and four from Charleston, the flow of the country's trade should turn our way with increasing volume as our merchants become familiar with the ports of the Spanish Main en route to the canal. So far Venezuela is almost wholly unknown to us. Less than ten years ago, a bill was introduced in our Congress to consolidate the diplomatic missions to the republics of Venezuela and Guatemala, under the impression that the countries were adjacent! and during the debate one member arose and asked in all seriousness, "Where is Venezuela, anyhow?"

Like Brazil, Argentina, and Mexico, Venezuela is a federation of states. In this respect it differs from the other Latin American republics. Its government is modelled closely on our own, although more centralized, the governors of the states being appointed by the federal executive. The country is on a gold basis; its national debt is not excessive; its administration of the postal, telegraph and customs services is efficient and progressive, and, underlying the whole structure, is the sure guarantee of inexhaustible agricultural riches. With each new crisis in her history, Venezuela has

advanced to a higher plane, and has maintained her footing. The men who have lifted her up the steps of her career have been honest in their purpose and patriotic citizens first, whatever they may have been in their private lives—Bolívar, Páez, Vargas, Guzmán Blanco, Crespo, and the little Andean general who has recently come again into international notice after a brief eclipse, Cipriano Castro. Many other names may be written on her roll of fame: the romantic, but visionary, Miranda, the fiery young patriot Yañez and the Venezuelan of all others who survived the revolution without question or reproach—General Sucre, who became the first president of Bolívar's republic of Bolivia.

Of all her latter day sons, Guzman Blanco accomplished most for his country. After service in the diplomatic corps in Europe, he returned in 1870 and was able to assume the supreme authority with an understanding of the needs of his disordered country and the knowledge and forcefulness with which to supply them. During his practical dictatorship of eighteen years, he ruled with a rod of iron, he enriched himself and his favorites, and stamped his personality ineradicably on the country—but he made Venezuela blossom like a rose. He rebuilt and beautified the capital, subsidized and fostered the railroads, opened the door to foreign capital and traders who learned to believe in his stable government, and improved the ports. Under his energetic administration the production of coffee reached phenomenal proportions; shipping made rapid progress; the population increased in normal ratio, and the homes of the people improved in every way. The work he did lasted. Castro also, worked hard to build up a spirit of nationalism with which to withstand the impositions of foreign governments, whose citizens in many instances had sought by fraudulent claims to enrich themselves. He too won a good fight and in some respects advanced Venezuela to a higher place in the family of nations. His patriotism has been made grotesque in our

public press, but it was sincere. He is well-born and able and has shown many of the elements of statesmanship.

Venezuela unquestionably has suffered injustice at the hands of European governments, and of our own, in the demands they have sought to enforce on behalf of citizens who have attempted to exploit the country—notably in the cases of her dispute with Great Britain over the boundary with British Guiana, and the French cable company.

THE GUIANAS.

On the northeastern shoulder of the continent lies a huge block of territory as large as France and Spain combined. It is in reality an island, since it is bounded on the north and east by the Caribbean Sea and Atlantic Ocean, on the south by the Amazon river, and on the northwest and west by the continuous water-way formed by the Orinoco, the Casiquiare and the Negro rivers, the last named being an affluent of the Amazon. Like the north Andean republics, the Guiana country is made up of mountains, highlands and low-lying plains, and lies wholly in the tropics; its productiveness thus embraces nearly every cereal and vegetable found in the three great zones of the earth.

Guiana was discovered, named and first occupied by the Spanish in the very beginning of things in South America. It acquired fame in the latter part of the sixteenth century as one of the regions in which the home of El Dorado (the Gilded Man) was supposed to be located—the fateful will-o'-the-wisp which was chased by the early adventurers all the way from the mountain fastnesses about Bogotá, in Colombia, and the lure which brought disaster to even such men of intelligence and practical common-sense as Sir Walter Raleigh and Sir Francis Drake. The long-sought Lake Guatavita (near Bogotá) in whose sacred waters El Dorado bathed his gilded body, was once supposed to lie near the source of the Orinoco in the Parima mountains, and indeed, geologists now contend that such a lake

did exist ages ago in these mountainous heights, and it is unquestionably true that on the line northward from this point runs a vein of gold richer than any in the known world and that this vein had been worked by the Indians from time immemorial.

The lure of the gold, purged, however, of its myth, has survived to our own day, for we all remember Great Britain's effort, in her boundary dispute with Venezuela, to extend her Guiana boundary over the rich gold fields south of the Orinoco delta.

Until 1624, the Spanish succeeded in holding Guiana against all comers; but in that year the Dutch West India Company gained a foothold at the head of the Essequibo delta, and was confirmed in its possession by the treaty of Münster in 1648, at the close of the war between Spain and the Netherlands. After this opening, other nations made haste to share in a partition of the rich territory. The French established a colony at Cayenne; the English made a settlement and called it Surreyham, after the Earl of Surrey,—whence the present name of Surinam—and eventually Guiana became partitioned among the five nations: Brazil became the owner of that portion trailing off southward to the Amazon which Portugal had wrested from Spain, and which is now sometimes called Brazilian Guiana, although it is an integral part of the United States of Brazil; France still retains Cayenne, now known as French Guiana; the Dutch are now installed in the Surinam colony which came into their possession at the time of the British occupation of New York, and is now called Dutch Guiana; Great Britain owns the three settlements at Demerara, Berbice and Essequibo, captured in 1803 from the Dutch and afterwards ceded to her by the treaty of 1814, and which now constitute British Guiana, and, lastly, Venezuela, as successor to the title of Spain, owns the rest of the highlands, south of Parima and Pacarima, the territory formerly known as Spanish Guiana until the revolution of the Venezuelan colonists,

since which time it has been a part of the United States of Venezuela.

British Guiana is 109,000 square miles in area—larger than the United Kingdom—and has a population of about 300,000, made up of 150,000 negroes, 100,000 East Indians, 15,000 Portuguese, 10,000 British and Europeans and the balance in *mestizos*. It is divided into three counties which correspond to the old settlements—Demerara, Berbice and Essequibo. Georgetown, the capital, is on the right bank of the Demerara river at its mouth. It is an attractive port city of about sixty thousand inhabitants, heavily shaded with tropical trees and presents the substantial appearance of most British colonial centers. Just now its business is rather slack, but, as the shipping port of a sugar area productive enough to supply the mother country, it could be developed into one of the great ports of the Caribbean. So far, however, hardly one-hundredth part of the colony has been touched, and not one-tenth of its fertile alluvium is under cultivation.

The area of Dutch Guiana is 46,060 square miles, and its population numbers about 70,000. The capital, Paramaribo, is a city of some 30,000 inhabitants, located at the junction of the Surinam and Commewine rivers, about ten miles from the sea. The colony's trade in coffee, cacao, gutta percha, timber and gold, has not yet been developed to such proportions as to make it self-supporting; it is still subsidized by the mother country.

French Guiana is known to us principally as a penal settlement. Since the days of the French Revolution, Devil's Island, off the coast, has been used by the French government as a penal establishment, and in recent years the world has become familiar with its supposed terrors by reading the account of Captain Dreyfus's sufferings. Nevertheless, French Guiana has all the capabilities of the other Guianas and could be made richly productive. Its area is 31,000 square miles and its population about 25,000; that of its

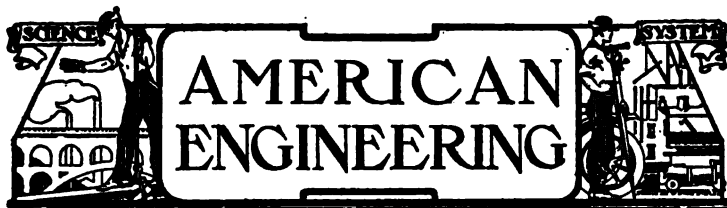
capital, the city of St. Louis on the Island of Cayenne, now numbers slightly over fifteen thousand.

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PRONOUNCING VOCABULARY

Academia de Bellas Artes	Ah-cah-day-mee'-ah day Bay'-yahs Ahr'- tays	Guajira	Gwa-hee'-rah
altos	ahl'-tohs	Guzman Blanco	Goos-mahn' Biahn'-koh
Apures	Ah-poo-rays	Huido a Egypto	Wee'-doh ah Ay-heep'- toh
bajos	bah'-hohs	Lara	Lah'-rah
Berbice	Bayr-bee'-say	Macarao	Mah-kah-ray'-oh
Cabello	Kah-bay'-yoh	Mateo	Mah-tay'-oh
Caizada	Kahl-sah'-dah	Michelena	Mee-chay-lay'-nah
Carabobo	Kah-rah-boh'-boh	Miraflores	Mee-rah-floh'-rays
Caracas	Kah-rah'-kahs	Monte Calvario	Mohn'-tay Kahl-vah'- ree-oh
Casiquiare	Kah-see-kee-ah'-ray	Ojeda	Oh-hay'-dah
Ciudad	See-yoo-dad'	Pacarima	Pah-kah-ree'-mah
Codera	Koh-day'-rah	Paez	Pah'-ays
coluna	koh-loo'-nah	Paramaribo	Pah-rah-mah'-ree-bah
Commewyne	Koh-may-wah'-ee-nay	Paria	Pah-ree'-ah
Concha	Kohn'-chah	Parima	Pah-ree'-mah
Coro	Koh'-roh	Pedernales	Pay-dayr-nah'-lays
Cumana	Koo-mah-nah'	Picacho	Pee-kah'-choh
Cura	Koo'-rah	Presentacion del Nino	Pray-sayn-tah-see-ohn'
Curacao	Koo-rah-sah'-oh	Jesus en el Templo	dayl Neen'-yoh Hay- sos' ayn ayi Taym'- ploh
Demerara	Day-may-rah'-rah	Silla	See'-yah
Dulce Nombre de Jesus	Dool'-say Nohm'-bray day Hay-soos'	Valencia	Vah-layn'-see-ah
Encarnacion del Hijo de Dios	An-kahr-nah-see-ohn' dayl Ee'-hoh day Day- ohs	Vargas	Vahr'-gahs
Esequibo	Ay-say-kee'-boh	Vespucci	Vays-pee-oo'-chee
Falcon	Fahl-kohn'	Yanez	Zah-moh'-rah
		Zamora	Yahn-yays'



IX. Scientific Management*

Carl S. Dow

ORDINARILY we do not associate science with the handling of pig iron, one of the elementary forms of manual labor, or with the shoveling of such materials as coal and ore. Yet at the Bethlehem Steel Company laborers who had been accustomed to handling 12½ tons of pig iron per day increased this amount to 47 tons when instructed by men who had studied the matter. Also, it was found that a man could do the biggest day's work without fatigue with an average shovel load of 21 pounds.

The operation of bricklaying apparently gives no opportunity for increasing the performance by scientific investigation, nor, from casual consideration are the processes of sealing and folding letters more promising. But the application of science to bricklaying resulted in the laying of 350 bricks per hour by men who previously averaged 120. In a publishing house, the number of letters made ready for the mail when folding, sealing and stamping were done in a way made standard after studying workers' motions and the arrangement of materials was about four times as great as when the girls were allowed to do the work in a manner chosen by themselves.

These illustrations are selected because of their sim-

*Previous instalments of this series are "Engineers and Engineering" in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for September, 1911; "The Steam Engine," October; "Heating Houses and Public Buildings," November; "Mechanical Refrigeration," December; "Compressed Air," January, 1912; "Gasoline Engine," February; "Sanitary Engineering," March; "Reinforced Concrete," April.

plicity and because of the absence of machines which introduce variables. Equally good and usually better results follow the application of scientific investigation to intricate classes of work.

Suppose an intelligent man or woman studies his machine, analyzes his motions, uses his time to the best advantage, both his working and his rest periods, and thereby finds the law governing the one best way of doing his work. Such a man is scientific, he applies the science of production—but he is an individual, not an organization, and therefore the term “management” cannot be used.

But suppose the executive organization of a company follows the policy of studying the laws which govern production, and determines for every operation that combination of men, motions, materials, and tools which turns out the work in the most economical way; in short, applies the science of production. Such a use of the science of production is called “scientific management.”

Scientific management, then, is the art of applying the science of production, or the science of salesmanship, to a company's business. This may not be an adequate definition of scientific management—it cannot be defined well in a single sentence, nor even in a paragraph; whole books are required to develop the subject. But perhaps this short definition will suffice until the principles of production and the functions of the management are more clearly defined in the mind of the reader.

In 1878, Mr. F. W. Taylor, the pioneer in formulating and applying the principles of scientific management, began work in the machine shop of the Midvale Steel Company. At that time and for some few years afterward, the compensation of the men was determined by what is known as the “piece-work” system, that is, the men were paid by the piece, not by the day or by the hour. The workmen did not strive very hard to do as much as they could and so increase their earnings, for under this system the management had a habit



Frederick W. Taylor, who has done more than any other man to reduce the problem of management to an exact science. Author of "Scientific Management"

(Courtesy of Harper and Brothers)



Foreman's meeting room. Charts arranged on curtains show monthly efficiency of each gang, and the percentage of time covered by schedule



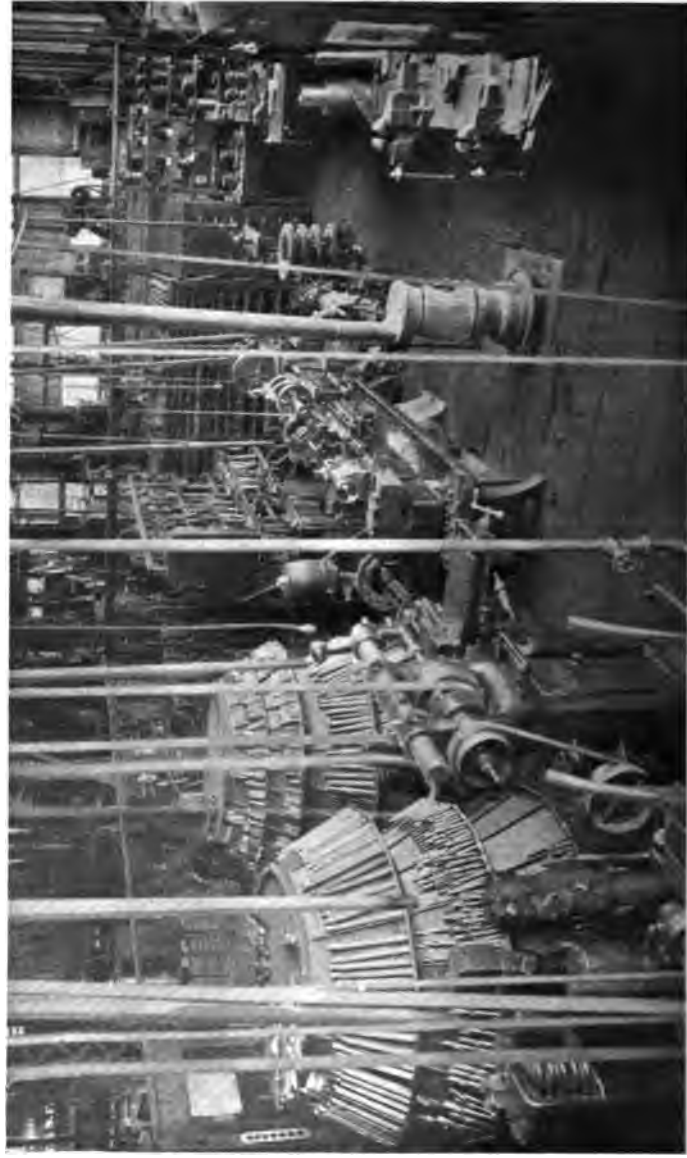
TOPEKA SHOP, COACH DEPARTMENT. Gang Efficiency For Month of FEB.

RECORDS
APRIL

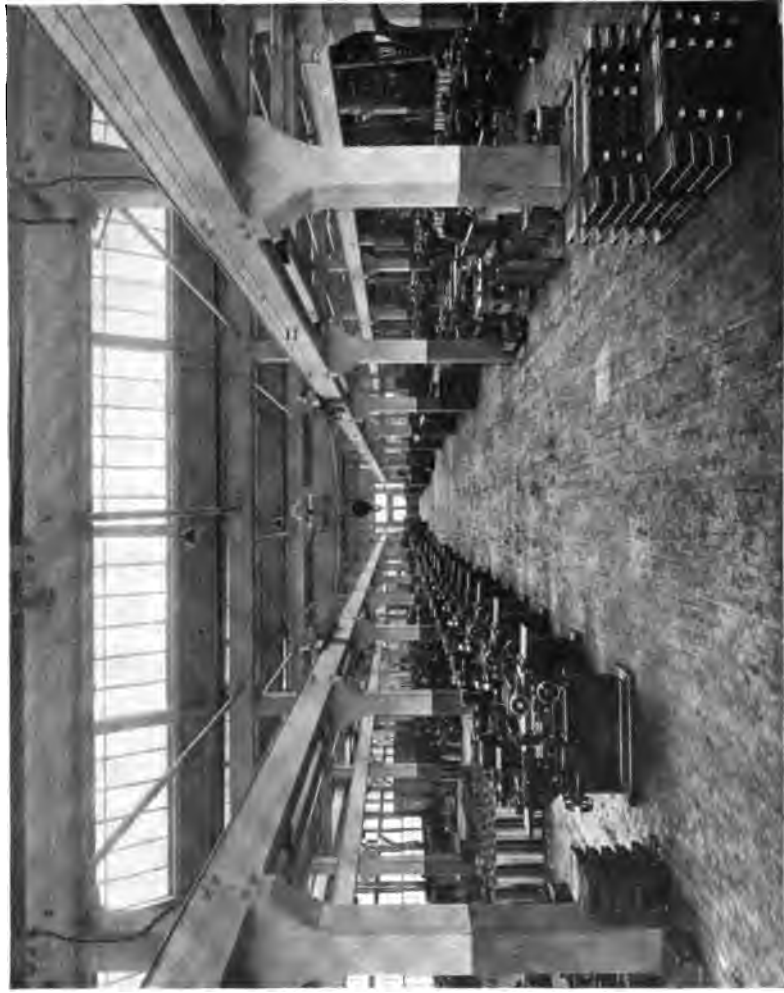
RECORDS
APRIL

	50	55	60	65	70	75	80	85	90	95	100	105	110	115	120	125	130	135	JAN	
COACH SHOP PLANING MILL.													110						114	117
CABINET SHOP.													112						109	109
INSIDE COACH BODY GANG.													110						105	118
OUTSIDE COACH BODY GANG.									92										91	93
COACH TRUCK & PLATFORM GANG.															123				117	117
COACH TRIMMERS.									98										108	95
UPHOLSTERERS.														116					115	113
COACH TINNERS.														111					114	107
COACH, AIR & PIPE GANG.													102						105	99
SILVER PLATERS.															122				139	137
HAND CAR DEPARTMENT.													102						105	110
COACH MACHINE & STEEL GANG.														108					105	103
COACH PAINTERS (MAIN)																			141	129
COACH PAINTERS SASH & DOOR GANG.																			146	140
LABORERS & SWEEPERS.																				67
GENERAL AVERAGE.																			112	109

Efficiency record board for various gangs of the coach department of the Santa Fe. Records are for the information of the foreman



Tool room at Albuquerque, New Mexico, shops



Abundant light is an important factor in scientific production. Industrial building designed
by Lockwood Greene & Company



Henry L. Gantt

For more than twenty years engaged in developing scientific management. Best known from his investigations into the compensation of workmen



Harrington Emerson
Teaches big manufacturers how to save money in business. A
practical idealist



Nest body with packages being pushed into a Packard motor truck. Time of truck and driver not wasted "waiting" for a load

of reducing the piece rate as soon as the man began to make much money. In the Midvale Steel Company, the workmen planned how fast each job should be done and limited the speed of the machines so that the output was actually about one-third of what it should have been.

Mr. Taylor, who had turned out more work than the other machinists, was made gang-boss of the lathes. He tried in every way to increase the output, but it was a constant struggle. The men, many of whom were his personal friends, would ask him if it was for their own interest to turn out more work, and knowing the conditions, knowing that they would have to work harder without earning more, he had to tell them that if he were in their places he would fight against turning out more work. He realized that the trouble was in the system of management.

But when he became foreman, he tried to bring about changes in the management; his energies were directed toward making the interests of men and management interdependent. He tried so to arrange matters that the workmen would benefit from their greater output. Such an endeavor soon brought to the surface the fact that neither men nor management knew what really constituted a proper day's work. Right here began the study of the science of production.

The president of the company wished to please Mr. Taylor because he had been so successful, and accordingly allowed him to make experiments. These studies were conducted scientifically and related principally to the time required to do various kinds of work, also to the finding of some law or rule which governs physical labor whereby a foreman could know in advance how much physical labor a man could stand.

These studies, carried out with stop watch and measuring stick, showed among other things that a workman should be under load only a certain percentage of the time (depending upon the work) and should be free from load

part of the time. Returning to the handlers of pig iron; it was found that the best of the men could work without harmful fatigue if they were under load 42 per cent of the time, and free from load 58 per cent of the time. In a ten-hour working day there are 600 minutes—therefore the man could be under load $.42 \times 600$, or 252 minutes. The distance from the pile of iron to the car was thirty-six feet, and the stop watch showed that the men covered this distance with load in the average time of .218 minutes. In 252 minutes they would make 252 divided by .218, or 1,156 trips. The pigs averaged 92 pounds each, so that $92 \times 1,156$ equalled 106,352 pounds, or over 47 long tons were carried in a day.

These facts were determined while the men were at work, and while they were loading but $12\frac{1}{2}$ tons. Mr. Taylor first figured out that they could load $47\frac{1}{2}$ tons, and this figure was set as the standard. With men fitted physically and temperamentally for the work, instructed as to how the work should be done, and rewarded by increased pay, the tonnage thus scientifically determined became the amount actually handled.

Mr. Taylor's gathering of data on production led him from one thing to another, but every development pointed to the urgent necessity of a revolutionary change in management, a change to a system of management which would recognize and adopt the principles on which the science of production is based, and by applying the principles perform the real functions of management.

Before considering the management, let us look closer into what constitutes the science of production. Most work is done on machines which really constitute the tangible equipment. The problem is how to remove chips rapidly, whether wood or metal, and how to make the piece smooth and true in the shortest time. To solve this problem the machine must be standardized, that is, its speed and feeding capacity must be arranged to do the particular job in the shortest time.

That most machines are not turning out as much work as they are capable of doing is strongly suspected, but indisputable evidence to this effect is usually lacking except in those comparatively rare instances when scientifically trained men have made proper tests. An instance related by Mr. Taylor shows the material gain resulting from standardizing equipment.

"A number of years ago a company employing about three hundred men, which had been manufacturing the same machine for ten or fifteen years, sent for us to report as to whether any gain could be made through the introduction of scientific management. Their shops had been run for many years under a good superintendent and with excellent foremen and workmen, on piece work. The whole establishment was, without doubt, in better physical condition than the average machine shop in this country. The superintendent was distinctly displeased when told that through the adoption of task management the output, with the same number of men and machines, could be more than doubled. He said that he believed any such statement was mere boasting, absolutely false, and instead of inspiring him with confidence, he was disgusted that anyone should make such an impudent claim. He, however, readily assented to the proposition that he should select any one of the machines whose output he considered as representing the average of the shop, and that we should then demonstrate on this machine that through scientific methods its output could be more than doubled. . . .

"A careful record was therefore made, in the presence of both parties, of the time actually taken in finishing each of the parts which a first-class mechanic worked upon. The total time required by him to finish each piece, as well as the exact speeds and feeds which he took, were noted, and a record kept of the time which he took in setting the work in the machine and removing it. After obtaining in this way a statement of what represented a fair average of the work done in the shop, we applied to this one machine the principles of scientific management. . . .

"After preparation so that the workman should work according to the method, one after another, pieces of work were finished on the lathe, corresponding to the work which had been done in our preliminary trials, and the gain in time made through running the machine according to scientific principles ranged from two and one-half times the speed in the slowest instance to nine times the speed in the highest."

How this miracle was performed Mr. Taylor explains in every detail. He shows how the machinist could never himself arrived at this result. The result depended purely on proper management of the shop.

After the standardization of equipment comes the standardization of operations. By operations is meant the

time required to put the piece in the machine, the time consumed in working on it or finishing it, and the time taken in removing the finished article. It also includes the selection of the tools best adapted to the job in hand.

It is related that a superintendent of a machine shop bought a new machine for boring the hubs of pulleys. Theoretically the machine should have bored one pulley every two minutes, or in the six hundred minutes in the ten-hour day it should have bored three hundred pulleys; actually it bored only one hundred and forty-four pulleys. The superintendent analyzed the time for the different operations to find out how many minutes the machine was busy and how many minutes idle. One hundred and eighty minutes were lost in grinding tools, oiling bearings, and getting work into and out of the machine. A duplicate set of tools saved the time lost in grinding, two trucks instead of one saved part of the time lost in handling, with the result that the machine averaged two hundred and fifty-three pulleys, or increased its output over 75 per cent.

The study of the time required to do work, both hand work and that involving machines, makes possible savings so great as to be almost incredible. Only lately have managements undertaken to find out exactly how long it should take a man, fitted for the work and provided with proper tools, to perform a given task. While information gathered by trained observers using stop watches has been of inestimable value in increasing output, one can never be certain of the best and most efficient method until it has been subjected to the criticism of scientific investigation.

Just because bricks had been laid in a certain way for centuries people thought there was no chance for improvement. It remained for Mr. Frank B. Gilbreth to study scientifically the motions of the bricklayer. Eliminating one motion after another, by getting the most effective arrangement, he reduced the eighteen motions to five. The exact position of the feet was developed, the best height of the

mortar box and brick pile was studied, and the height of scaffold which would keep bricks, mortar, and men in their proper positions was determined. Formerly each time that a bricklayer laid a brick on the wall he lowered his 150-pound body by stooping, and then raised it again. Think of the energy wasted doing this a thousand times a day!

With Mr. Gilbreth's way, the bricks are carefully sorted and brought to the bricklayer, not as a heap dumped on the scaffold, but arranged in "packs;" the adjustable scaffold is kept at the right height all the time by a man detailed to look after this part of the work. Mr. Gilbreth's bricklayers are taught the art by the foreman; those failing to profit by the instruction are dropped; those doing their work in the right way receive a substantial increase in wages.

The science of production consists in standardizing both the equipment and the operations, as we have said. To apply the science of production, the management must recognize that it has certain functions to perform, and it must accept the responsibilities.

One of the first of these functions is the determination of a proper day's work; another is the selection of the men; a third is the training of the workers selected; a fourth is the provision of such work as will keep them employed during the hours agreed upon; and a fifth the compensation. Mr. Gantt, in his excellent book "Work, Wages, and Profits" brings out strongly that the practical value of scientific production can be made best use of when the management *provides an instructor, a task, and a bonus*.

The first function of the management, the determination of a proper day's work, utilizes very largely "motion study," "time study" and other methods of scientific production, which have been outlined briefly.

The selection of the men, the next duty of the management, should receive as much attention as does the selection of materials, which are carefully tested. To return yet again to the handlers of pig iron—the management of

the steel company carefully selected the men for this work. Their tests showed that only one man in eight of those previously engaged on the work was physically suited to handle pig iron. It was clearly the duty of the management to make the selection. The men would not do it; they would not think such a step was necessary, they would not see that it would help them; they would not remove their friends, perhaps relatives. But in choosing the pig iron handlers, those not suited to the work were well taken care of—they were given work for which they were better fitted.

The worker must be trained by the management, not merely allowed to absorb as much instruction in his art as he could get from his fellows. See how this attitude differs from that of the older types of management which assumed that a workman was more skilled in his trade than any one of the management could be—therefore with ordinary systems, all details were left to the workman. Selection of machines, speeds, tools, and ways of doing work were left to him. Under scientific management, the executives see that the workmen are instructed; they appoint foremen to teach men to work in accordance with the laws formulated from the scientific study of production; they teach the one best way of performing each operation. The management bears all the expense of scientific study and of instruction.

It is right and proper for the management to instruct their men, for the workmen themselves have neither time nor training for investigation, and still further they would never think of such a thing, for they usually prefer to sell their labor as time rather than output.

Another function of the management—providing work for the men—is one of the so-called basic principles of Mr. Taylor's system and is known as "planning" the work. In a department especially developed for the purpose, trained executives analyze the various problems, map out the work of the entire establishment, and distribute it among the various departments. The planning department corresponds

to a "board of strategy," or the "staff" of the army, or the "coaches" of an athletic team.

The system of planning is one of the principal means for bringing success to scientific management for it insures each operation being done in the best way, or at least in one of the best ways. It relieves the worker from planning his own task, enabling him to concentrate all his time and energy on production, which determines his compensation.

A "route chart" or working plan, is made of each order and copies are sent to the foremen of all the departments concerned. It shows the route or travel of all parts which make up the product; it states what parts can be taken from stock, what parts must be made, how, and by whom, and what tools will be needed. When the planning and routing is skillfully done all parts reach the assembly room at about the same time.

The workman also receives his instruction card which shows the exact order in which each operation must be performed, the tools used, the speeds and feeds (if the factory is a machine shop) and, most important of all, it gives the time in which each operation should be completed by the average workman. The planning department provides also for the supplying of material in the shape of rough castings or partly finished pieces, and for the removal of the finished product.

One's first thought on considering the extensive and exacting duties of the planning department is that the men in this department must be very learned, methodical, and of course high-priced. This is true only to an extent, for "motion study," "time study," and scientific analysis of operations and routing yield a vast amount of data which needs only to be classified and put in shape by men thoroughly versed in scientific management.

The second thought probably has to do with the workman himself. Does not this system turn him into a mere machine? Some men always follow blindly and are without

initiative, but this type soon becomes more skilful and more interested in his work. Others soon see how they can improve the methods prescribed by the planning department. When they do, they receive their reward; if they suggest improvements very often they naturally become foremen.

The fixing of compensation is the function of management in which the workman is most interested. It is a vital problem for the management also. Is not the labor cost usually the greatest of expenses? Are not most strikes caused by wage discussions?

Fundamentally there are only two systems of paying for work. One, called the "day work system" pays for the time a man puts in; the other, the "piece work system," pays for the amount of work he does. Under the day work method, the employer naturally wants all the work he can get out of his men. On the other hand, and quite as naturally, the workman wants all the money he can get for the time he spends, and sometimes does as little work as he can in the time agreed upon.

The employer cannot personally keep a record of what each man does; neither does the foreman keep individual records. Then it is impossible to tell exactly how much a man does, and it is equally impossible for the good workman to get higher wages, for his employer does not know except in a very general way that he is more efficient than others. It is therefore customary to pay a horizontal wage to all men of a class, with resulting growing discouragement to the best men until they become little better than the less skilful. What is the result? They join a union, for the union is about the only means of raising class wages, except of course the condition of a demand greatly exceeding the supply. When the union succeeds in getting the pay increased, the good workman is not satisfied, for it is *difference* in wages, not *absolute* wages that stimulates activity, and the good workman still gets the *same* pay as his less efficient neighbor. How does the raise in wages effect the less skil-

ful? He realizes that he is getting more than he is worth, but he is still unwilling to do as much as he can—for he is getting as much as those who work harder and better.

Scientific management alters all this by providing a plan for rewarding the skillful man, and for making the inefficient man more efficient. The scheme is usually called the "task and bonus" system or "task work with a bonus." It works out something like this:—the workman receives his instructions which state that the task should be done easily in, say, three hours. If he finishes it in three hours, or less, he receives four hours' pay. In other words, if he performs his task in the time stipulated, he is paid for the time stipulated *plus a percentage of that time*. If he spends more than the time stated on his instruction card, he only gets his day rate or hour rate.

Some will say, "the time allowed plus the bonus is in reality piece work," and so it is piece work for the efficient man. But the inefficient man is no worse off—he is on day work.

Practical application carries the bonus farther—to the foreman. He receives a *small* bonus for each man receiving bonus under him, and a larger bonus when *every* man under him gets a bonus. Suppose a foreman has twelve men under him and he gets eight cents bonus per day for each man who receives bonus. If eleven of them get a bonus, he would receive 88 cents. If now he gets twelve cents bonus each if *every* man receives bonus, he would be entitled to \$1.44. In other words, the twelfth man's bonus would be worth 56 cents to the foreman. Would he not give particular attention to every man who needed his instruction?

The bonus scheme quickens the whole shop. Suppose a craneman is slow in moving heavy pieces for the machine man, and by causing delay prevents some of them getting bonus. He would probably be approached after hours something after this fashion: "Jim, you lazy, good-for-nothing, you robbed me of my bonus today; if you don't hustle

things tomorrow there'll be something doing." Can you imagine anything like this under ordinary managements? No, the machine men sit calmly by, smoking if it is allowed, until the craneman gets ready to attend to them.

Scientific management gives a bonus to stimulate the man, the foreman, and the craneman.

Mr. Taylor says: "Scientific management does not necessarily involve any great invention nor the discovery of new or startling facts. It does, however, involve a certain *combination* of elements which have not existed in the past, namely, old knowledge so collected, analyzed, grouped, and classified into laws and rules that it constitutes a science. . .

"It is no single element, but rather this whole combination, that constitutes scientific management, which may be summarized as:

"Science, not rule of thumb.

Harmony, not discord.

Co-operation, not individualism.

Maximum output, in place of restricted output.

The development of each man to his greatest efficiency and prosperity."



Twelve Months of the Peace Movement

Denys P. Myers.

Librarian, World Peace Foundation

THE past year has been one in which to a remarkable extent peace has been a subject of "live news," as the journalist says. Officially and unofficially, it has received more public attention than in almost any other similar period, and to a greater extent than usual it is necessary in reviewing pacific activity to distinguish between the advances along these parallel lines. Because the public questions involved naturally are matters of general knowledge and because they result more or less from propaganda, it is convenient to consider private organized peace work before referring to public questions bearing on the movement.

For the first time in history, the peace movement began the year 1912 fully organized in all its parts. Until actual operation could be begun under the Ginn gift of 1909 and the Carnegie gift of 1910, the movement suffered most from lack of co-operation, from the limitations of the individual enthusiasts who kept it alive. Not until the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace was in a position to attack the problem of war had there ever been worked out a pacifist program that in any degree scientifically covered the entire field and sought to correlate the mass of pacifist work in the world. This has now been done, and henceforth the peace movement is to be not the result of work by many independent forces but the product of organization, correlated, and, in its results and conclusions, more free from the natural megalomania which every human being naturally feels toward his own work. The world can reasonably expect the peace movement to take on the aspect of a real science.

The outstanding fact of the past year was the progress

toward this coördination. By March, 1911, the Carnegie Endowment was organized and in action. As yet its influence has been felt chiefly in Europe where pacifism heretofore had performed the miracle of existing without visible or other means of support.

One American development was the removal of the headquarters of the American Peace Society from its ancestral home in Boston to the national capital. Its succession in Boston by the Massachusetts Peace Society followed by organizations in Maine, New Hampshire and Vermont—there was already a good society in Connecticut—has been a notable instance of activity.

In other respects also the American Peace Society has taken on a character at once more national and better designed to perform its proper service. The organization by states has been further supplemented by division into departments covering the Central West, New England, New York, and the Pacific Coast portions of the country. Most of these changes had been prepared for previous to 1911 but were made effective in that year.

Within the last few months, in this and other connections, there has been a disposition on the part of a very few people having access to print to make the cynical charge that the peace movement is at one and the same time a scheme of Mr. Carnegie's to control the movement and his instrument to bring about an Anglo-American alliance. Both statements are, of course, absolutely and perniciously false and are reverted to here only to hasten their arrival at oblivion. Mr. Carnegie made over his gift to the endowment bearing his name unconditionally and he has and desires no control over the policy followed in spending the income. The same sort of irresponsible talk has been uttered in respect to the coming celebration of the centenary of the Treaty of Ghent, committees upon which are now actively at work. The idea of this celebration was broached three years ago without the particular knowledge or aid of Mr. Carnegie. As a

prominent peace worker he was naturally asked to serve on its committees, but beyond such personal influence as is wielded in that way, Mr. Carnegie has no concern with the celebration. Such foolish statements would not be worth serious attention were it not for the strong muckraking disposition abroad in the land, regardless of common sense.

The Carnegie Endowment is under the exclusive control of its board of trustees, the executive committee of which has set down as its policy (1) that the organization will not seek to supplant associations now existing but will seek to strengthen and co-ordinate them, encouraging new organizations in parts of the field not adequately covered; (2) that the work will be world wide; (3) that abroad work will be conducted by assisting national organization; and, (4) that special attention will be given to the direction of work "along the line where the sentiment for peace comes into immediate contact with the difficulties and exigencies of practical international affairs."

The work of the Endowment is to be done in three divisions, economics, international law, and education. Professor John B. Clark of Columbia is director of the economics department, and at Berne, Switzerland, last summer called together many leading economists, who drew up a scientific program for attacking the war problem definitely from the side of the pocket-book. The division of international law is in charge of James Brown Scott, Secretary of the Endowment, and the work at present authorized includes the collection and publication of all known international arbitrations and arbitration treaties; the establishment in the Peace Palace at The Hague of an International Academy; appropriations for a selected list of international law journals and the urging of the Institute of International Law to act in an advisory capacity. The division of intercourse and education, under Nicholas Murray Butler, includes in its program promotion of the strength and efficiency of the American Peace Society; the conduct of a

Paris Bureau; promotion of the strength of the American Association for International Conciliation, the Permanent International Bureau of Peace at Berne and the Central Office of International Institutions at Brussels; promotion of the value and circulation of a selected list of peace and arbitration journals; engagement of especially effective workers for their entire time; establishment of educational exchanges between Latin America and the United States and Japan and the United States, and provision for visits of leaders of opinion to foreign countries by interchange.

This program is being carried out through the efforts of the division of education. Professor Inazo Nitobe of Tokyo is lecturing in this country, and Charles W. Eliot, President Emeritus of Harvard University, is in the Far East for the same purpose. The visits of President Butler and Dr. Scott to Europe resulted in the Endowment officials voting considerable aid to organizations previously ill-supported. Through its assistance the Permanent International Peace Bureau, beginning with 1912, was enabled to discontinue its small French bi-weekly journal and to supersede it by another in French, German and English, called the "Le Mouvement Pacifiste." This henceforth will be a much more useful journal of peace work throughout the world. Numerous other European organizations have been aided to carry on their work more efficiently. Another significant phase of the work was called to the attention of the Carnegie Endowment by Senator Henri LaFontaine of Belgium, who visited this country last spring in the interest of the Central Office of International Institutions, whose scope was explained in this journal last May. His presentation of the matter greatly interested the Endowment and its important work of welding the nations socially and scientifically is receiving assistance from the Endowment..

All of those engaged in peace work agree that the past year has seen a greater public interest in the subject than has ever before been shown. The World Peace Foundation,

essentially the educational instrument of the movement, has been particularly affected by this development. In one year 300,000 pamphlets were distributed, a surprisingly large number being sent by request. In a single year requests for information to the Foundation have quadrupled, and most of the inquirers indicate that they are writing, studying or lecturing and desire facts for those purposes. The Foundation is constantly adding new volumes to its important International Library; and the work last summer and autumn of Dr. Jordan in Japan and of Mr. Mead in England and Germany, did much to strengthen co-operation with the workers in those countries.

The remarkable work of the American School Peace League has been extended during the year to almost every state, and also to several European countries.

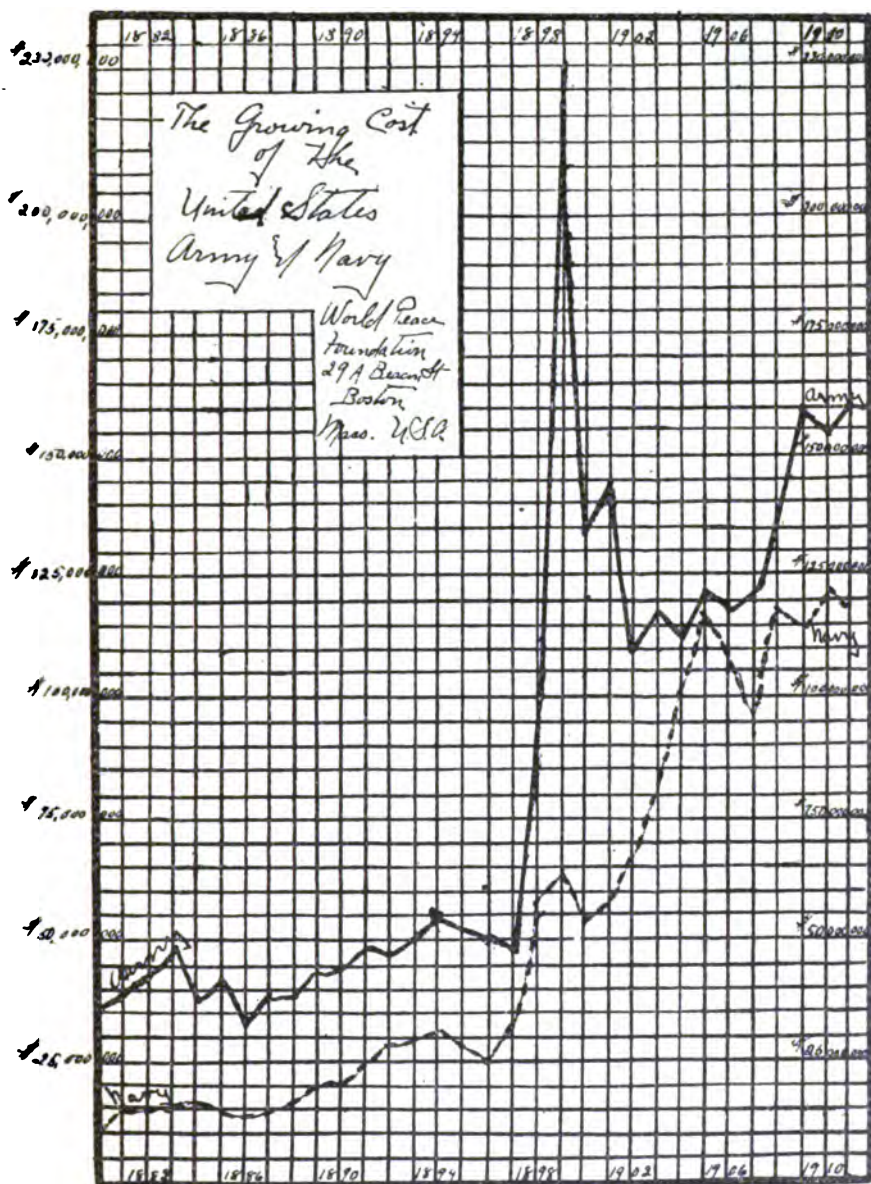
Through the prizes offered annually by the American School Peace League and the Lake Mohonk Conferences on International Arbitration, the colleges and secondary schools are taking an increased interest in the subject, while school and college debates on phases of the subject have notably increased. All of these public activities have indicated by the kind of question asked that the people have become familiar with the peace proposition, for more and more they desire facts rather than opinions or essays.

This increase of public interest has unquestionably been fostered by the presence of the arbitration treaties among the questions of national political interest. From the submission of a single resolution over 200 chambers of commerce throughout the country acted favorably to arbitration and since the texts of the arbitration treaties became available, the resolutions favoring their ratification have poured in upon the Senate in unprecedented numbers. Through the legislative day of March 5 Senators had received 1,496 resolutions favoring the treaties, from chambers of commerce, churches, commercial associations, lawyers, women's clubs,

public welfare clubs, not to speak of "sundry citizens" of every state in the Union, who transmitted their names to the Senate on joint petitions, literally by thousands.

Uncertainty in respect to its provisions marked discussion and action upon the most important peace development of the year of an official character. President Taft's suggestion of a broader arbitral basis made in December, 1910, met with cordial response from France and Great Britain. The result was the negotiation of two identic treaties, signed August 3, 1911. The unusual custom of publishing the text was followed and this not only made the treaties a public question but brought about their discussion in the open Senate.

The many public speeches and meetings held relative to the treaty question, the curious interpretation of them as blows at Ireland and Germany on the one hand and the inclination of many of their advocates to consider them as legislating in the dove of peace at one stroke, are now matters of history and need not be referred to. It was quite as surprising to find some Senators as much at sea about the real purport of the documents. For unadulterated perversity of argument let me refer the reader to the speeches of Senators Heyburn, Hitchcock and Smith of Michigan on March 5 and 6. At the voting on March 7 fears born of misunderstanding asserted themselves and the famous clause 3 of Article III., providing for the submission to a Commission of Inquiry of the interpretation of the scope of Article I, went by the board, having the misfortune to be put to the vote before action on the Lodge resolution which had been generally accepted. A textual change of no importance and a qualification of Article I were the other changes. A careful legal study of the resultant document leads me to conclude that Article I is unaffected by the qualifications of the Bacon resolution excepting from treaty jurisdiction the admission of aliens into the United States or their educational institutions, the territorial integrity of the coun-



try, Southern bonds, and the Monroe Doctrine. International law indicates beyond peradventure that such national questions are not "justiciable international" matters within the contemplation of the treaty.

At this writing it is unknown whether the Executive will ratify the mutilated treaties, let alone submitting them to France and Great Britain for ratification. It may be well to point out that even as the treaties stand they constitute a really important advance over the previous treaties. Arbitration is of course a question of a legal character. Never before the negotiation of these treaties had the legal nature of a question been made the test of its arbitrability, but this is exactly what Article I does, though it is generally admitted that its scope is little if any larger than that of the previous treaties with their exceptions of questions affecting independence, vital interests and national honor. Under the old treaties the question of arbitrability was left to the caprice of international politics. Under Article I of these treaties only the legal character of the matter determines action upon it. The next step is of course to secure a disinterested opinion on the character of a given case. Provision was made for this in the rejected clause 3 and perhaps its fate was in no small measure due to the fact that the negotiators attempted to take two steps in advance in full view of the public.

The result as a matter of education was notable and can be contemplated by everybody without regret. A public hitherto not much informed as to arbitration had occasion to consider the subject earnestly and to study it to no small extent. Viewed broadly, it is probably not too much to say that the whole nation within the past year has expressed itself unanimously for peace, even though the citizenship was not so single-minded as to the merits of a particular arbitral solution of the problem.

It is the opinion of the writer that American peace workers were well advised in not making an issue of the

outbreak of the Turco-Italian war. The events of last September were generally hailed as directly violating the Hague Convention for the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes. The actual wording of that document does not bear out the allegation, for mediation before a war is expressly left by it in the hands of the disputants, who permit it "as far as circumstances allow." Italy, in a diplomatic note prior to the declaration of war, served notice on the powers that in this case circumstances did not allow, and their own lack of tangible interests in Tripoli was doubtless a major cause for their acceptance of that verdict. The instance indicates clearly a lack in the Hague Convention, and constructive pacifism cannot do better than accept the lesson and work for the prevention of similar instances in the future. In the very nature of things, of course, opportunities for territorial aggrandizement are growing less, and where they exist are usually so complicated that no power dares to take a hostile initiative. It would probably not be too much to state that the Turco-Italian war was made possible simply by the lack of any but Turkish and Italian interests in Tripoli.

A movement as diversified in its points of contact with public, political, social and moral questions as is the peace movement is naturally exceedingly difficult to summarize in a word. The attempt, however, is sometimes worth trying and it would seem to the writer that at the present moment the peace movement, as a great public force, has clearly made the moral field a conquered province and is definitely waging its present campaign in the practical fields of economics and international affairs.

THE ANNUAL ARMAMENT BUDGETS OF TEN NATIONS

<i>Country</i>	<i>Fiscal Year</i>	<i>Expended for Army</i>	<i>Expended for Navy</i>	<i>To. Military Charge</i>
Austria-Hungary	1911	\$ 73,513,000	\$ 13,731,000	\$ 87,244,000
France	1911	187,632,000	83,286,000	270,918,000
Germany	1911-12	203,938,000	114,508,000	318,446,000
Great Britain	1910-11	138,800,000	203,020,000	341,820,000
Italy	1911-12	81,033,000	39,643,000	120,676,000
Japan	1911-12	49,196,000	43,405,000	92,601,000
Russia	1911	265,642,000	54,128,000	319,770,000
Spain	1911	37,671,000	13,696,000	51,367,000
Turkey	1911-12	42,071,000	6,223,000	48,294,000
United States	1910-11	162,357,000	120,729,000	283,086,000
Totals		\$1,241,853,000	\$692,369,000	\$1,934,222,000

Including the Anglo-Indian army, but excluding all militia, gendarmerie, and colonial forces, the total annual military charge of the world approximates \$2,250,000,000. Can international wisdom offer no relief?



BELOW is a translation of the speech delivered on March 13, 1904, by Señor Raimundo Silva Cruz, Minister of Foreign Affairs for Chile, upon the occasion of the dedication of the international peace monument, the Christ of the Andes, which stands upon the border line between Chile and Argentina.

GENTLEMEN: For many centuries the great events of history have been events of war, the deeds of captains, the conquests of monarchs. Struggle has been the normal condition of peoples, war the ideal of nations; peace has been the exception, regarded as a sign of decadence. It has seemed as though the human race, born in accordance with the law of creation and of life, was seeking to convert this law into one of destruction and of death.

Fortunately, gentlemen, the march of history in modern times has brought with it a complete transformation. Now that the peoples of the world are concentrated in vast groups, their laws of living regulated, their respective spheres of action marked out, they are, to-day, devoting their efforts towards improving conditions of life instead of causing death; towards creating instead of destroying. The development of moral and intellectual education, of industrial activity and of means of communication has brought with it a new era, and to-day peace is the normal condition of nations, as well as the ideal of humanity as a whole. War is the abnormal condition, the state of illness. It has become only a last unfortunate resort.

Chile and the Argentine Republic, linked in their cradles by indestructible bonds, have given an eloquent example of these tendencies, and are proving that, though born but yesterday to the estate of sovereign nations, they have already identified themselves with this movement, and absorbed the modern spirit like an influx of new blood. We have established peace, we have guaranteed brotherhood in this part of the American continent, and we have thus laid the foundations of progress for these peoples.

To-day mutual confidence unites the hearts that beat on both sides of these mountains. To-morrow the countries will be united by the railroad. Still later capitalistic, industrial and commercial relations will unify our interests. This triple bond will enhance the greatness of both nations, and history will blazon the memory of this day on which we have come together to consecrate that union at the foot of this monument, a splendid work of art, raised upon the grandest of pedestals, nature's work; at the foot of the Divine Apostle of brotherhood, of Him who wrote within the human breast the sublime command: "Love one another." Symbol of friendship, placed upon the boundary line of two brother peoples, the image of the Christ of Peace will rise from earth toward heaven in the pure ether

of the mountain heights, bidding coming generations of Argentinos and of Chilians: "Keep high your gaze and thought; lower them not to that which causes division; fix them forever on the common good."

There was a time when oceans were impassable because of the inadequate methods at man's disposal. They were abysses separating nations. Modern progress has succeeded in converting them into most valuable means of communication between peoples and of commercial interchange. So these mountains, seemingly a mighty wall of separation, a well-nigh insurmountable barrier, stand converted by the grace of God, from to-day onward forever, into a door of union and a guarantee of mutual respect. Nature placed them between the countries clearly to mark for each her proper sphere of action and of influence, the one on the side of the Atlantic, the other looking toward the Pacific. Both countries wisely appreciated this truth, and they have established peace upon a firm foundation.

Future generations will be able to appreciate at its full value the consummation of international brotherhood achieved by the treaties of the month of May, whose eloquent and expressive climax is the solemn consecration which we have just witnessed. Future generations will see the full development of the consequences of this momentous act; they will see how peace brought power to these republics, whose strength war would have annihilated; they will see that, because their resources were not wasted in fighting or in making ready for war but were, on the contrary, wisely used in industry and in preparing for progress, they were prosperous and always respected by other nations.

Chile, for her part, gentlemen, will appreciate this act; she will carry on the work of American administration nobly laid down in the treaty of May, and she will honor the names of those statesmen connected with it, especially of their Excellencies the Presidents of Argentina and of Chile.

Chile will remember also with gratitude the friendly ministrations of the British government, and of its worthy representative who is with us to-day, and who exercised so zealous and so noble an influence in the first steps of this work of brotherly concord; and she will regard with especial esteem the name of Señor Terry, whose personality has won the deepest affection of all Chilians, and whose mission found a ready response from them, because it was a mission of peace, and because, given the object of the embassy and the spirit of the people welcoming it, it could not have been a mission of war.

In the name of Chile and her government I recognize the beautiful meaning of this occasion; I acknowledge the kind thoughts made manifest concerning my country and her people, and I beg that I may be allowed, since I was the negotiator of the peace and am to-day the head of my country's cabinet, to make use of my high position to become the interpreter of our sincere wishes for the prosperity of the Government and of the people of the Argentine Republic.

The Vesper Hour*

Under the direction of Chancellor John H. Vincent

"Let Us Have Peace"

By Dr. J. H. Jowett of the Fifth Avenue Presbyterian Church,
New York City.

"Blessed are the peacemakers, for they shall be called the children of God."—*Matthew 5,9.*

LET us not begin with any mistaken assumption that these peacemakers are weak people, without vision, without conviction, without strength. They are not people bereft of ideal, and susceptible to no pang. They are not devoid of aspiration, experiencing no dissatisfaction and unrest. They are not numb to the presence of wrong, and therefore possessed of no passion for right. They do not go about mildly offering ointments for dislocated

*The Vesper Hour continues throughout the year the ministries of the Chautauqua Sunday Vesper Service.

limbs, and cosmetics for polluted blood. No, the "peacemakers" are not the blind and the deaf, the insensitive and the indifferent. I would remind you that these beatitudes must be taken in their wholeness, and that every one of them requires the strength and presence of every other. The beatitudes do not describe different types of characters: they describe varied characteristics of the same character. And therefore the peacemakers have all the energies and experiences of the blessed life. They "see God." They mourn for sin. They have the fortitude which can encounter storms of persecution "for righteousness' sake." They are strong enough to rejoice when they are reproached and maligned for Christ's sake, and they hear the coming shout of victory in the cloudy day of apparent defeat. These are the scriptural "peacemakers," not soft weaklings, but the sons and daughters of power and vision, children of chivalry, hating the wrong, while yearning and striving for the establishment of the Kingdom of God.

Now with that preliminary taste of their quality let us turn our minds to meditation upon their work. And let us begin with the royal and lofty end of the great beatitude. Let us begin with the statement of their relation. "They shall be called the children of God;" and from the relation let us pass to the statement of the action and life.

"They shall be called the children of God." Why shall they bear that name? Because they are "peacemakers" after His spirit, after His fashion and likeness. They have caught His ways. They have shared His purposes. They have incarnated His spirit. They have manifested His glory. They "shall be called children" because they are "the Father over again!" What, then, is the Father like, that we may find His resemblance in the children? How does the Father make peace? Let us seek our guidance in the pages of the Old and New Testaments.

I turn, then, to the Old Testament. How does the Father make peace? And here are the responses to my groping question. "The work of righteousness shall be peace;" "Righteousness and peace have kissed each other;" "O that thou hadst harkened to my commandments, then had thy peace been like a river." What is the common significance of the words? It is this. The Father-peacemaker seeks peace through rectitude. Peace is the fruit of certain prepared conditions. Peace is not something imposed: it is something produced. It is an outgrowth, not a deposit. It is a culmination, not a foundation. It comes into being when certain other things are done. Peace is frictionless movement, and, therefore, everything must be righteously balanced, and there must be no grit or gravel

in the wheels. This is true in the realm of the body. Physical health is physical peace: it is frictionless action, and for this every organ must be rightly related to every other organ, in quiet co-operative movements. This is true in the realm of the power working with power in frictionless movement, will and desire at one with conscience, and affection serenely in consort with all. And the principle holds true in the realm of society. Social peace is the fruit of social health. Or, if you please, it is frictionless movement in the body corporate, member working with member in the serenity of just relations. "The work of righteousness is peace." This is the way of the heavenly Peacemaker, our gracious Father in Heaven, and, therefore, they who are "called the children of God" are making peace in the Father's way. They labor for equitable relations, because the dove of peace builds her nest in the haunts of righteousness, and she builds it nowhere else. And, therefore, we shall not find the children-peacemakers going about merely mortaring bulging walls when the Father's way is to make them straight. They do not prescribe pretty wallpapers when it is a case of bad drains. They do not prescribe soft words for dislocated limbs. This rather is their way, because it is the way of the Father: "Seek ye first the kingdom of righteousness, and these things," including peace, "shall be added unto you." When right relations are restored the angel of peace will come to abide. "Blessed are the peacemakers."

But now turn to the New Testament for further guidance upon the Father's way. And here we shall be led into deep and mysterious realms, but not without finding a lamp for our own road. How does the Father make peace? And here is the answer, partly hidden in veiling cloud, and yet brightly radiant with grace and love. "Having made peace through the blood of the Cross." I want to enter the Father's realm of grace that I may bring back a guiding light for my own road. I want to reverently gaze upon the Father's way that I may know what must be the way of "the children." And what do I find? "Having made peace through the blood of the Cross." The Father made peace through restored relations, and this through the ministry of sacrifice. "Ye were not redeemed with corruptible things . . . but with blood." At present I want nothing more than this from this inexhaustible treasury of grace: The Father sought and made peace at the cost of His own sacrifice. And may we not reverently say that such must be the manner and ministry of those who would be the children of God? We are to be makers of peace through personal sacrifice, through costly ways that demand our blood. Peace-making is not to be a light pastime, a cheap bit of by-play for the disengaged remnants

of our days. The peacemakers who are to be "called children of God" will leave red marks of blood along the road, and the blood will be their own. We are to "drink of the cup that He drank of," and so make peace. He "made peace by the blood of the Cross." "Blessed are the peacemakers," who in their own sphere make peace by the blood of their own cross, "for they shall be called the children of God."

Now let us take this lamp of Scripture guidance concerning the Father's ways and hold it above some of the disjointed and disordered affairs of men. Take it to family life, where there is cold aloofness, or heated quarrelsomeness and strife. Family life ought to be like the Master's seamless robe, but too often it is torn into shreds. And often again this tattered vesture is to be found in presumably Christian homes, where the Prince of Peace is supposed to dwell. Well, what shall we do? What ought we to do? I mean we who are here this morning, and who may be the torn shreds of the holy robe, what ought we to do? I know we think we have right on our side, and I know that peace can never prevail until the right is regnant. I know that, and I have just been proclaiming it from the sacred word. But then the Father-peacemaker has right on His side, and what did He do? "Having made peace by the blood of the Cross." You say you "won't budge!" The Father did! You say you "won't move a hair's breadth." It sounds like the strength of courage; it is really the weakness of cowardice. It is not valour for the truth, it is the recoil from Calvary, it is shrinking from your own cross. You say, "If he wants peace, he must make the first approach." And is that the Father's way? I thought that this told us the order of the heavenly doings: "We love because He first loved us."

"O not upon our waiting eyes
Lord, did the heavenly lustre break:
Not to our love's beseeching cries
Did love divine slow answer make.
We made no haste to seek Thy face,
Thy angels found no listening ear:
We did not urge Thy lingering grace
Nor win Thy distant glory near.
O, no! Thy voice was first to speak:
Thy glory, Lord, was swift to come:
Thy love made gracious haste to seek
And sweetly urge the wanderer home."

He made the first approach. "He emptied Himself." He "made peace through the blood of the Cross." And I do not hesitate to say that any family strifes and quarrels represented here this morning could be ended in a week, if only we are brave enough to crucify our pride and seek peace by the blood of our own cross.

"He that loseth his life shall find it." "Blessed are the peacemakers," who seek peace through their own cross, "for they shall be called," because they are "the children of God."

Take the lamp of the Father's ways, and carry it to wider fields; into the heated realms of social quarrels and disorders. The Old Testament has told us that peace will never make her home where righteousness cannot be found. Righteousness and peace are inseparable: they kiss each other in eternal communion: when righteousness is banished peace flies away. And there is glaring wrong between man and man, and there are crooked and unholy relations between class and class, and these must be rectified before peace is found. But the rectification will not be made without the shedding of blood: I do not mean the blood of fierce war, but the blood of holy sacrifice. Oh, it is a blessed and mighty thing when strength itself will bleed to nourish the weak, when advantage itself will shed its blood for the sake of the disadvantaged, and the forlorn! It is a blessed, and winning, and reconciling thing when capital deals justly with labor, when rights are revered, and common need finds equitable satisfaction in the common bounty. But when strength immures itself in its own pride, and clings to advantage that sheds no blood, there can be no rectitude, and, therefore, no peace. And therefore it is that for social peace we need other sacrificial ministries, men and women who will shed their blood in the cause of social rectification and civic health. Let us thank God for such chivalrous servants of the commonwealth, who might have spent their days in the bloodless whirl of selfish delights, but who spend themselves for the common good, and who seek and "make peace in the blood of their own cross." "Blessed are the peacemakers," who toil and moil in the sacred cause of social equity, who make peace by the blood of their cross, "for they shall be called the children of God."

Take the lamp to still wider fields, to the whole family of man, to the estrangement of nation and nation, to the hideous twilight, where the frowning, ominous clouds of war are never out of the sky. My brethren, look around on the perilous, provocative, explosive elements which are about us today. There is the unhealthy and obtrusive emphasis of armaments. Everywhere they are given pre-eminence. At coronations and state ceremonies they are accorded the first place, to the subordination of the tokens and captains of industry, and the leaders of literature, and science, and art. And secondly, there are the brooding jealousies, which even at the best of times lie around the world like sleeping curs. And thirdly, there is the bleeding of the judgment of fierce and unclean passion, the blunting of discernment, the perverted sense of honor—

all of which you can see at work in the relations of England and Germany today. And fourthly, you have the barbarities of war, which John Bright described as "The combination and concentration of all the horrors, atrocities, crimes, and sufferings of which human nature on this globe is capable"—and the confirmation of those words may be found in the appalling condition of Tripoli today. And lastly, when war is over, when homes have been decimated and families have been riven, when the battle has gone to the swift and the strong, who knows that the right has prevailed? At the end of the war, in the triumph of the mighty, the wrong may be enthroned.

These are some of the perilous elements with which we have to deal. What shall we do? Let us listen again to the Master's words, "Blessed are the peacemakers." And how shall peace be made between nation and nation when affairs are tending to misunderstanding and alienation and strife? How does the Father make peace? "Having made peace by the blood of the Cross." And Oh, I would that some great Christian nation would, in some time of dispute, make peace by the blood of its own cross, by some sublime act of glorious sacrificial magnanimity! I would that some Christian nation would disown the axiom that the law of nations is the law of the beasts, and "laying aside every weapon of carnal warfare," would rely for her continued existence upon the powers of reason, "upon the service she would render to the world," and the testimony she would bear to Christ. You may deride the suggestion as ideal, but what am I here for but in the ministry of the ideal, and amid the fog of worldly compromises and experiences, to keep its radiant dignities in sight? And it may be, as a man of statesmanlike mind declared some years ago, "it may be that a nation martyred for Christ's sake may be within the counsel of God," a nation which sought to make peace by the blood of its own cross.

Meanwhile there is a bright light in the troubled day, and the fountain of that light is the President of the United States. From him have come proposals by which the reign of passion, and the consequent perils of feverish judgment as perceptible action will be greatly lessened and allayed. The proposals are concerned with the relations of the United States and Great Britain and France, and they provide that "all differences hereafter arising between" these nations, "which it has not been possible to adjust by diplomacy, relating to international decision by the application of the principles of law and equity, shall be submitted to a Permanent Court of Arbitration." These proposals register a mighty step forward into the light, and I am firmly convinced that if they are approved, in the ages to come they will constitute no small part of the national glory

of this country, and that they will invest with undying honor the memory of the courageous man in whose noble statesmanship they were born. Meanwhile the proposals must not be imperilled by the silence of the churches or by any lukewarm Christian support. Our course is clear. In the name of the Prince of Peace we must strengthen the President by prayer and speech, and deed, and here and now register our aspiration and endeavor after that bright and happy day when "nation shall not lift up sword against nation, neither shall they learn war any more."



PEACE

My soul, there is a country,
Afar beyond the stars,
Where stands a winged sentry,
All skilful in the wars.
There, above noise and danger,
Sweet Peace sits crowned with smiles,
And One born in a manger
Commands the beauteous files.
He is thy gracious friend,
And (O my soul, awake!)
Did in pure love ascend,
To die here for thy sake.

If thou canst get but thither,
There grows the flower of peace,
The rose that cannot wither,
Thy fortress and thy ease.
Leave then thy foolish ranges;
For none can thee secure,
But One who never changes
Thy God, thy Life, thy Cure.

—Henry Vaughan.



NEW AMERICAN YEAR READERS

The complete American Year—four books and all THE CHAUTAUQUAN Magazines for the reading year—can easily be read during the spring months or in the summer vacation if preferred. No one is in so good a position to convince others of the value and practicability of doing this as those who have enthusiastically taken the course. Each member of the C. L. S. C. has received a special letter providing the very extraordinary incentive of complimentary subscriptions to the *Outlook* or *Literary Digest* for securing new readers now. Look up this letter again and help to spread Chautauqua Reading where you know that it will do good.



ANNUAL CERTIFICATE

The Annual Certificate for 1912 will be a beautiful picture of the "Christ of the Andes." Application blanks may be secured from the Extension Office, Chautauqua, New York, and when returned should be accompanied by six cents for postage. Look up page 136 of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for September, 1911, for full particulars.



LETTER CIRCLES FOR THE CLASS OF 1912

The scheme of letter circles developed some years ago by Miss Una B. Jones of the Class of 1908 has been so heartily welcomed by members of various classes who would like to keep in touch with each other during the year, that

their number is increasing. It is an especially good plan for lone readers who by this means have a chance to share in the comradeship of other Chautauquans. This is especially applicable at this time to the members of 1912, who are soon to graduate. Any members of the Shakespeare Class who would like to join one of these letter circles will find the way made easy for them by writing to Miss Una B. Jones, Stittville, New York, who will give them the desired opportunity.



AN EXTRA SEAL FOR GRADUATES

Many graduates who are perhaps taking special courses or who are interested in some rather exacting line of work, want, nevertheless, to keep in touch with Chautauqua developments and their fellow Chautauquans by having THE CHAUTAUQUAN each month. Such graduates who are reading the three required series in the Magazine may earn a seal for work by filling out correctly the special review paper which will be found on page 425 of the Magazine. Don't let your Chautauqua diploma fail to win a seal for its adornment each year. You will enjoy the experience.



NEW HAVEN WINTER GATHERING

The New Haven Chautauqua Union held a notable meeting on February 28 in the Y. M. C. A. banquet hall of that city. More than a hundred members were present and addresses were made by Dr. J. W. Seaver, for many years the head of the School of Physical Education, and by Rev. E. E. Dent of New Haven on "Connecticut's Part in the Formation of the Federal Government," a very timely subject in view of the C. L. S. C. interest in its present "American Year's" course. Miss Helen Gauntlet Williams rendered several solos and the evening as a whole contributed much to the good fellowship so characteristic of Chautauqua.

THE VALUE OF A SURVEY

. If you happened to be a commander in war time instead of what you are—a pacifist in these piping times of peace—you would send up your air men to get a general plan of the city you were besieging, and from the knowledge they brought down to you, you would plan your attack. If you want to get the most out of a book you read it through from cover to cover first, and after this rapid survey you go back and read it slowly, noticing every point, making yourself confident on every detail, and attacking with especial vigor the parts from whose study you can gain most. Try this method on the next worth-while book you take up and see if it does not double its value for you.



WRITE TO PENDRAGON

The Round Table would be glad to know about successful final programs. Address the Editor of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, 23 Union Square, New York City, and tell him all about it. If you have kodaks of any scenes or characters or groups or meeting places, send them on.



CHAUTAUQUANS IN THE MAKING

The recent celebration of Bishop Vincent's eightieth birthday has brought very prominently into public attention the fact that the Chautauqua idea is destined to be a world idea. Instances of the growing eagerness for education and of the spread of highly enlightened notions among the leaders of education is cheering evidence of the ever-widening spirit of human brotherhood and the resulting attempt to make life more worth while for others. A recent book "Among the Danes," by Miss Butlin, shows how a movement in some respects resembling Chautauqua is making itself felt among the Danish people. She tells how the Jutland peasants, shrewd bargainers though they are and likened to the thrifty Scots, have, like the Scotsmen, an aspiration for higher things. In the autumn after the har-



Froman's Ferry near Caldwell, Idaho, where there is a flourishing circle



Old Lighthouse at Barcelona, New York. A favorite picnic spot for the Westfield Chautauquans



Wilhelmina C. L. S. C. of Tacoma, Washington



Listening to the band at the Pacific Grove, California, Assembly



Carnegie Library, Sedalia, Missouri. The C. L. S. C. has met here



1911 Class at the Litchfield-Hillsboro (Illinois) Chautauqua



Some of the readers of the University C. L. S. C. of Seattle, Wash.



Marshall College, State Normal School, Huntington, West Virginia. In the parlors of this building meets the Huntington Woman's Club of which many C. L. S. C. readers are members



Court House, Butler, Missouri



Parlor of the Elizabeth Gamble Deaconess' Home, Cincinnati, Ohio. The Franklin Circle finds this a pleasant meeting place



In each of these houses lives a member of the Victoria Circle of Oil City, Pa.



Collar Factory



Library

The Ilium Circle of Troy, New York, has members who are nurses, teachers, and collar factory employees, and they all read in the library



Hospital



School



Executive Committee and Heads of Departments



A club of young married C. I., S. C. readers



Platform decorations. Portrait of Bishop Vincent presented by the Winfield Alumni Association on Recognition Day
Winfield (Kansas) Assembly; Quarter Centennial Session, 1911



Drive in Roscoe Conkling Park, Utica, New York



Between the ponds, Pocasset, Massachusetts, where the Progressive Circle of Brockton picnics occasionally

vests, certain high schools are thrown open to the farming men and women for a two or three days' intellectual diversion. The halls are crowded, the larger part of the audience being farmers, many of whom with their wives engage rooms for the period, and bring their bedding with them. Lectures on an astonishing variety of subjects show that the Danish peasant is ready to consider "Islam," "Armenia," and "Personality," as well as "Gladstone" and "Charles Darwin." Before and after each lecture a song or hymn is sung by the audience and in the evenings there are entertainments such as skillful reading of Hans Christian Andersen's *Farmyard Sketches*, always received with enthusiasm, and the rendering of a translation of Aristophanes' "Days," by a well-known actor who came from Copenhagen. The Danes are keen critics and enjoy their lectures as much as the typical Scotsman does his sermon, finding it something to ruminate on at his leisure.

In the Orange Free State, South Africa, educational enthusiasm has actually made its appeal to the farming population in terms of a Chautauqua. A newspaper from that interesting country tells of a recent journey by the Director of Education through this part of his field. The report tells how he found at Kestell, a place already made familiar to us by reports in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, "a most interesting gathering." "It was a gathering of between 300 and 400 farmers and their families who had come in from all parts of the district and the surrounding districts to listen to papers and discussions on purely literary and scientific subjects. The idea of holding such gatherings is that of the Rev. J. J. Ross of Witzieshoek, who saw them during a visit to the United States, where they are called by the Indian name of "Chautauqua." Hitherto, said Dr. Viljoen, farmers had been prepared to sacrifice two or three hours from home only for religious purposes, and latterly, also, to attend shows, and it was most gratifying and encouraging now to find them willing to make the same sacrifices in the

interests of culture. The "Chautauqua" was held in a large tent, and well-known men delivered lectures on "Art," another on the Boer settlement in the Argentine; and one by a member of the Agricultural Department, on "Agriculture." Dr. Viljoen himself addressed the gathering on the present position of education in the Free State."



SOME OF MISS HAMILTON'S EXPERIENCES

Miss Meddie Ovington Hamilton, the C. L. S. C.'s accomplished Field Secretary, has been visiting Chautauqua localities in the Far West. She had the pleasure of a personal interview with Dr. J. Allen Smith, whose book, "The Spirit of American Government" has stirred the thinking powers of Chautauquans and resulted in very earnest and thoughtful discussions. In a letter received in response to a question from the *Winfield Chautauqua News*, he writes concerning the new points of view advocated by his book:

"In the University of Washington, the courses on government have been presented from this point of view for the last twelve years. There was a good deal of hostile criticism at first, but it has now almost entirely disappeared. The book has had a much more favorable reception than I expected. In writing the volume I was not thinking of its use as a text book. My only object was to present an interpretation of American institutions that the facts would support. The ultra-conservatives have no use for it, but the fact that I am still in the University of Washington shows that the people of this state at least are not now hostile toward it. I may add that such attacks as have been made on me in the past have come from representatives of special privilege and have failed to accomplish their purpose because public opinion did not support them."



HOW ONE CHAUTAUQUA KEEPS UP INTEREST

The Winfield Chautauqua in Southern Kansas has from the first had its face turned to the rising sun. It keeps watch over its territory and has always held up high Chautauqua ideals and so won the approval of all the surrounding communities that when Wichita, a large town and railroad center, twenty-five miles distant, was urged to develop a Chautauqua of its own, the scheme was promptly quelled by loyal Chautauquans. "No," they said, "we will not do

anything to impair the usefulness of Winfield which first kindled its torch at the Chautauqua fire and has kept it burning wondrously clear ever since."

The Winfield Chautauqua publishes a paper. It is an enterprising little sheet and Mrs. Dora Kerschner, who watches over the C. L. S. C. interests of the paper, sends out the following "Suggestive Points for News Items." As a result she gathers up many rich experiences and keeps the people of Kansas reminded of the "School for Out-of-School People" which they may attend for the asking:

1. Tell about origin and present size of your Circle.
2. Any new plans taken up this year?
3. Have you any members who have traveled abroad? Any who have visited at Chautauqua, N. Y.? When?
4. What summer assembly do you attend and what help do you get from this? What plans for next summer?
5. How are you enjoying the "American Year?"
6. Have you made the Chautauqua influence felt in the community?
7. Do your people continue reading after they graduate?
8. Do you keep in touch with the Mother Chautauqua by means of the Chautauquan Weekly?



1912 REPORT BLANKS

Each member of the Class of 1912 should receive during the month of May a circular entitled "Report Blank and Final Address to the Graduating Class." This circular contains spaces for report of the four years' reading and of any other work which has been done, together with the dates of Recognition Day at various Chautauqua Assemblies and the time limit for sending in reports.

Any member of 1912 who does not have this blank in hand by June 1 should notify the office at Chautauqua, New York.

The blanks described above should be returned promptly by people who wish to receive their diplomas at Chautauqua or at some other Assembly.

Members to whom diplomas are to be sent by mail need not finish their reading until October first. Readers who are eager to graduate at an Assembly should not be discouraged if they are somewhat behind in their work now,

for wise management of time accomplishes wonders. It should be remembered that no written examinations are required. Reporting the four years' reading to the Chautauqua office and paying the proper fee is all that is necessary to secure a diploma. Seals may be added to the diploma by the answering of review questions, but this may be postponed a little if necessary.

1912's Recognition Day at Chautauqua will be August 14. The Baccalaureate Sermon will be preached on Sunday, August 11, by Bishop John H. Vincent, Chancellor of Chautauqua Institution.



"ORDER YOUR DIPLOMA, 1912"

Chautauqua Institution's seal of approval for work well done is worth having. The bit of vellum is a symbol of perseverance and courage, and a reminder of happy hours.



NEW CHAUTAUQUA READING COURSE

Of the world-wide struggle for social progress it is vitally important to get an international view if one is to understand the age in which we live. People in the German Empire may use different methods from ours or from those of their nearer neighbors in the family of nations, but they are after the same results—individual efficiency, social justice, national welfare. Is it conceivable that any nation could ever again resort to a French Revolution? The Chautauqua Reading Course for the coming year will give an enlightening bird's-eye view of the most significant modern European developments. Supplementary studies of Italian Art, German Home Life, and French Literature will round out the popular group of subjects.

The first book to be taken up will be "Social Progress in Contemporary Europe," by Frederic Austin Ogg, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of History in Simmons College. Mr. Ogg sketches the general aspects, social and political, of

Europe in the 18th century, studies France under the old régime, in the Revolution, and under Napoleon, and shows the changes in agriculture and industry in England in the early part of the 19th century, with the resulting growth of democracy. Popular government on the continent fills a group of four chapters of absorbing interest, and the book ends with a careful and scholarly summary of the development throughout Europe of legislation and service for social betterment, with a sketch of the advance of the freedom of the individual, and of the growth of socialism. Mr. Ogg is a thorough student of history on its philosophical and social side, a college professor, and the author of several valuable books on historical themes.

The second book to be studied will be "Mornings with Masters of Art," containing 125 illustrations. The author is Dr. H. H. Powers, whose connection with the Bureau of University Travel has made him even more widely known than has his work in more conventional educational lines at Madison, Oberlin, Smith, Leland Stanford, and Cornell. In this volume Dr. Powers has given for the first time the substance of the searching, critical and descriptive talks which he has for years been giving to his European travel groups. Beginning with Greek painting and its adaptation by the Romans, he traces the development of Christian art (including mosaics and bronzes), the growth of art by reason of the enlarging vision of the master painters whom Italy gave to the world, its struggle to maintain its life in the Middle Ages, its wane and the rise of the humanist movement. The painters of Pisa and of Umbria, and the all-glorious work of Leonardo, of Raphael and of Michael Angelo are described with enthusiasm and detail. With no imaginative effort the reader fancies himself in famous European galleries listening to the skilful and instructive talks of this excellent art critic.

Third on the list is "Home Life in Germany," by Mrs. Alfred Sidgwick. The author is of German ancestry, and

she was born and reared and lives in England, so that she is able to write with a sympathetic appreciation of the national traits of the Germans as they are seen in their everyday living, while at the same time she views them with the perspective of an outside observer. The book is chatty and pleasant and at the same time informing.

During all the time that the above books are being read "The Spirit of French Letters" will be in hand. This is because it will be especially rewarding to read this survey of French literature in connection with the "Reading Journey in Paris," a study of the great city at different historical periods, which will run in THE CHAUTAUQUAN throughout the year. Mrs. Mabell S. C. Smith, assistant editor of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, is the author both of the book and the magazine series. Mrs. Smith, whose interest in things French has been life-long, is making a trip to Paris this spring, for the especial advantage of this Reading Journey.

The leading series in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be "European Rulers: Their Modern Significance," by Arthur E. Bestor, director of Chautauqua Institution. Mr. Bestor is widely known as a teacher and student of and lecturer on political history, and this series will be of exceptional value both in itself and as supplementing Mr. Ogg's book. The personal characteristics of the modern rulers of whom we read in every paper we take up, and their real influence upon their countries, make a fascinating subject for interpretation at the present day. Mr. Bestor is in Europe now gathering material for his articles.



CHAUTAUQUA DAY IN 1913

The Greenfield, Indiana, Chautauquans organized a Society of the Hall in the Grove on Bishop Vincent's birthday, February 23. This was surely a most fortunate occasion. Why should not other Chautauquans act upon this suggestion? This year, as our Chancellor marks his four-score years, significant in great services to the American

people, let all Chautauquans determine to mark Chautauqua Day, February 23, for the future perpetuation of Chautauqua ideas. What if it is a common saying that people are too busy to go to meetings? There must be some occasions when enthusiasm in a good cause may have a chance to show the real vigor of its faith. A Society of the Hall in the Grove is practical in any community—even the busiest. It does not involve a weekly or bi-weekly meeting. S. H. G. simply means a town association of graduates with one grand rally day during the year when the name of Chautauqua shall be observed with as much spirit as is now bestowed upon Washington's Birthday, Peace Day, or any other great day in the life of the people. Chautauqua Day should be the signal for rallying all graduates. It might be an occasion for an S. H. G. banquet, such as are already observed by various groups of graduates, a time when all new graduates of the previous year are welcomed, when next year's plans may be discussed, a committee or two appointed and in the following autumn when the new year opens, churches encouraged to hold Chautauqua vesper services, the local papers supplied with special articles and in other ways the community be reminded of the living force of the Chautauqua idea.

In this day of many organizations, we may emphasize the fact that Chautauqua utilizes for self-culture the spare moments of the individual—meetings need not be multiplied except as they spring up spontaneously—but let the S. H. G. with its one notable meeting each year on Chautauqua Day, February 23, be the mainspring which shall see to it that Chautauqua, America's unique pioneer in the education of the people, be enabled to extend more widely than ever its stimulating influence. It is worth remembering, all you who have felt the stimulating influence of the C. L. S. C., that Chautauqua means many things. It means not only self-culture for everybody, but broader educational ideas for the community, higher religious life and civic enthusiasm

and brotherhood. All of these things are a basic part of the Chautauqua idea. Chautauqua Day may be so utilized that it will come to be recognized in every town and village as an anniversary when works of signal importance to the community may be inaugurated. Chautauquans will show their faith in the idea by co-operating with all the best elements in the place to work for the uplifting of higher ideals among the people. The old world watches America. Every year foreigners visit Chautauqua to study this unique American idea. This is the time so to establish it everywhere that its significant name may be recognized by every visitor from the old world as America's contribution to the future educational life of every nation.



Verses Worth Memorizing

THE RHODORA

In May, when sea-winds pierced our solitudes,
I found the fresh Rhodora in the woods,
Spreading its leafless blooms in a damp nook,
To please the desert and the sluggish brook:
The purple petals, fallen in the pool
Made the black waters with their beauty gay;
Here might the red-bird come his plumes to cool,
And court the flower that cheapens his array.
Rhodora! if the sages ask thee why
This charm is wasted on the earth and sky,
Dear, tell them, that if eyes were made for seeing,
Then beauty is its own excuse for being.
Why thou wert there, O rival of the rose!
I never thought to ask; I never knew,
But in my simple ignorance suppose
The selfsame Power that brought me there,
brought you.

—Ralph Waldo Emerson.

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SUGGESTIONS FOR FINAL PROGRAMS

Roll Call—What I have enjoyed most this year and why.

Dialogue—between John Bull and Miss Columbia, each politely insisting on the other's merits as portrayed in "The 20th Century American."

Comparison—of Smith's "Spirit of American Government" with "The American Constitution," by Frederick Jesup Stimson.

Plan—of an original composite novel; plot outlined by one member, setting described by another, characters drawn by a third; illustrations provided by tableaux in costume.

Tableaux—scenes from some novel which was studied in connection with "Materials and Methods of Fiction;" accompanied by readings.

Address—on settlement work by a settlement worker.

Scenes—in South America—rooms decorated to represent a *patio*; photographs, books, curios, etc., on exhibition; members in costumes of different South American countries use conversation in keeping with the characters; quiz games on great men or history or natural resources or scenery.

Address—making local application of the information furnished by the articles on "American Engineering."

"*As We See Ourselves*" impersonated by nine characters in costume representing the literary forms discussed by Mr. Heydrick in his chapters. Each describes her work in the literary world either seriously or humorously.

A plan in which many of the above suggestions may be utilized is to devote the evening to the presentation of a copy of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. A frame bearing at the top the title in the accustomed lettering will serve as a setting. In addition to the numbers on the above list there might be

Frontispiece—Bishop Vincent's portrait; or tableau from some picture given in the magazine during the year.

History—of the year's work, read or recited by the Muse of History in up-to-date dress, representing the current events department, "Highways and Byways."

"*As We See Ourselves*"—see above.

"*A Reading Journey in South America*"—Reading in costume from "Maria" by Jorge Isaacs, translated by Rollo Ogden.

Song—(apply to the Pan American Union, Washington, D. C., for information about all South American material, music, poetry, etc.)

"*American Engineering*." See above. Or humorous sketch of the circle as a solid reinforced concrete construction made up of pebbles (members) stiffened by steel rods (officers).

Tableau—"The Very Latest"—a small baby or a new frock, or the most recent CHAUTAUQUAN.

Talk—summarizing the supplementary articles on "Latest" activities which have been appearing throughout the year.

Recitation—"America the Beautiful" in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for 1912.

Vesper Hour—quotations for roll call.

Library Shelf—Reading from some Library Shelf of the year.

Round Table—Scene representing delegates sitting around a table

with Pendragon. Each gives a paragraph of information or advice or news.

Talk About Books—pages dressed to represent well-known books serve leaves (of lettuce), etc., etc.



SUGGESTIVE PROGRAM FOR THE HUNDREDTH ANNIVERSARY OF BROWNING'S BIRTH, MAY 7

1. *Browning the Man*. Biographical sketch.
2. *Browning the Lover*. Illustrated by readings from the "Love Letters" and from the "Portuguese Sonnets" as they fit in; "By the Fireside;" "One More Word."
3. *Browning the Dramatist*. Illustrated by readings from "The Blot on the 'Scutcheon'."
4. *Song from "Pippa Passes."*
5. *Browning's Use of the Dramatic Monologue*. Illustrated by reading of "My Last Duchess."
6. *Browning the Novelist*. Story of "The Ring and the Book" and readings from "Pompilia" and "Caponsacchi."
7. *Browning's Philosophy*. "A man's reach should exceed his grasp;" "Grow old along with me, the best is yet to be;" optimism.
8. *Tributes*.
9. *Reading*. "Prospice;" "Epilogue."



NEWS FROM CIRCLES AND READERS

"Bishop Vincent's eightieth birthday anniversary has made us all feel like telling about celebrations," said Pendragon beamingly. "When are we to hear about the Bishop's birthday?" some one asked. "The June CHAUTAUQUAN is to be an Anniversary Number," answered Pendragon, and there will be in it the beloved Chancellor's latest picture, together with portraits of the beautiful box full of cards sent by loving friends, and some recent views of the Assembly Grounds at Chautauqua, New York." "Won't it be a beauty," cried the Man Across the Table. "It will," replied Pendragon succinctly. "I started to tell you," he went on, "about the work of the Chautauqua Circle of Canandaigua, New York, following their quarter-centennial, which they celebrated last June. First, here is the Circle's Year Book, nicely printed, with programs for the whole year, and containing a list of members and of graduates. There here is the invitation card for their Dickens celebration on February 12, and lastly, here is the written report." "Do read it," begged a pleading voice.

"The Canandaigua Chautauqua Circle which celebrated its twenty-fifth anniversary last June might have felt justified, because of its age and achievements in ceasing its activities. Not so. It

entered upon the new year's work with its old-time interest and enthusiasm. On Labor Day its annual outing was held with its oldest member who was temporarily staying outside the village. On September ninth, a corn roast was enjoyed which was followed by the election of officers. The officers of the preceding year were re-elected. The president is serving his twenty-sixth year in that capacity. Can any other circle match this? The annual social of the circle was held February twelfth. Though the date was Lincoln's birthday the observance was in the nature of a Dickens celebration. The walls were hung with pictures of Dickens and scenes from his books and some reports of Dickens celebrations in New York City were given. One of the place cards is enclosed. On the reverse side was a quotation from Dickens (all different), name of guest or member, and affixed was a Dickens stamp. The evening's enjoyment proved a happy interruption to the round of study meetings. In the several contests the president was the successful contestant and his souvenir was a book entitled "Flowers from Dickens".

"What a vigorous mental and social life they all lead in Canandaigua, exclaimed a Kentuckian approvingly. "But they haven't a monopoly of enthusiasm. We in Danville are brimming with it. Our Woman's Club is going to take the course next year, and we already have two big circles, as well as some individual readers. The two girls' circles have had such an interesting time this winter. They have had several delightful joint meetings. Once we had a lecture on American Newspapers and it was fine. Another time a very interesting talk on the 'Twentieth Century American' was given by a Danville young man who has graduated from Harvard and traveled abroad. The President of our girls' college is to give us a talk on 'The Spirit of American Government,' so you see we have been quite ambitious. And what do you think? I have two circles outside of Danville, that call me 'mother,' and have a prospect of several more." "What a splendid work that is," some one commented, "encouraging these young women who are soon to be homemakers and to carry the Chautauqua influence into their married lives."

"California has the reputation of making things grow," said the delegate from San Diego. "We readers of the Aloha Circle think that it increases our working ability." "How does it show itself?" "Why, we not only do the regular reading course work, but in addition we have been studying Spanish, parliamentary law, and investigating California wild flowers." "You *are* a busy lot!" was the exclamation that went around the room. "I belong to the circle at Columbia Station," said an Ohio delegate. "We

pride ourselves on doing the most thorough sort of work." "I've no doubt you do, and enjoy it mightily," said Pen-dragon.

"The Sedalia Circle," said a Missourian, has been doing some interesting work in connection with Mr. Hamilton's fiction book. We recently had sketches of some leading writers, among them Joel Chandler Harris and Edward Everett Hale."

"The Youngstown Circle had a very amusing George Washington party in February," said an Ohio delegate, smiling at the recollection. "There were twenty-five members present and each was dressed to represent some state in the Union and was met at the door by George and Martha Washington. The house was decorated with flags and tiny flags were given as favors."

"The Eaton Circle of Des Moines had a Washington party, too," said a Des Moines delegate. "Our hostess's house was artistically draped with red, white and blue bunting, hung with innumerable flags and celebrated portraits of the beloved Washington and his co-workers, and it all made a beautiful patriotic demonstration. An immense banner of the Stars and Stripes hung in the reception hall and waved a hearty welcome to each guest as he entered the door. The program was appropriate and varied, and everybody enjoyed it immensely."

"That must have been very jolly," laughed an Alabaman sympathetically. "We in Birmingham had the pleasure of listening to a talk from a lady who had been more than a year in South America, and who addressed the Huntsville Avenue Circle to our great delight." "Our gayeties during the year included a party for the husbands," said the delegate from Tulsa, Oklahoma. "We have them with us often," declared a Port Jervis New Yorker. "One of our happiest times was a meeting held at the house of some of our out-of-town friends. Our host sent in wagons which took the whole party out, and added the pleasure of a delightful drive to the other amusements of the evening. After the regular lesson there was supper, and after that a general program was enjoyed by everybody. Its liveliest features were the reading of a poem, 'Miss Emerald Green,' which described the first visit of 'Miss Emerald' to New York City, telling of her impressions of the city and its wonders, and the recitation of pithy, poetical squibs descriptive of each member of the circle. These squibs and the

poem were original, coming from the pens of some of the Chautauquans."

"The Chautauqua Union of Des Moines meets every month. It had an especially pleasant meeting in February. There was a patriotic drill, with musical accompaniment by the Women's Relief Corps, composed of sixteen women. This was followed by an address on 'The Part Woman may Have in the Making of Greater Iowa.' Then came a group of Indian songs." "The Thomasville Circle had a delightful musical evening in February," said a North Carolinian. "In deference to St. Valentine all the decorations were of red, and there were hearts everywhere." "It was a pleasant relaxation from your hard work," remarked Pendragon.

"Is there any one here from Bridgeport, Connecticut?" he asked. "I am," answered a man's voice. "Won't you tell us about the Westport Clerical Union?" "Indeed, I will. Westport is not far from Bridgeport, you know, and the clergymen of the town and its vicinity are members of the Union. It is a Chautauqua Circle and it was organized as a result of the efforts of several clergymen. It is the aim of the union to better all conditions in the community and at each meeting some interesting topic is discussed." "Such as what?" asked Pendragon. "I remember with especial pleasure a talk on the Big Brother Movement. It was most stimulating." "As it deserved to be," commented another Bridgeport man. "I belong to the Clayton Hamilton Circle, and on account of our name we have taken a sort of personal interest in Mr. Hamilton's book on fiction. We almost feel as if we were its authors, and we have analyzed it with the greatest care."

"Here is a letter from Kokomo which is full of Indiana enthusiasm," said Pendragon. "Read it, read it," cried many voices. "Both the C. L. S. C. (or Student's League as we are named here) and the Round Table are in flourishing condition. The C. L. S. C. has its regular study class on Tuesdays and a social and literary meeting once every month. The Round Table has its regular meeting the first Saturday of each month. Committees have been appointed to work for the summer Chautauqua Assembly when we hope to have Miss Hamilton with us." "Here are some clippings about a Conservation meeting under the auspices of the Chautauqua Student's League. Former vice-president Charles Warren Fairbanks was the speaker of the evening and his address

was

"'profoundly thoughtful, delightfully interesting, and strikingly earnest, Mr. Fairbanks brought to the people of Kokomo a broader, a more beautiful and a more comprehensive view of the conservation movement than was ever before presented to them.

"Mr. Fairbanks spoke for nearly two hours, and the audience—one of the most representative that ever assembled in the city and one which filled the main auditorium of Grace Church and overflowed into the galleries—heard him through to the end with an interest so intent as to leave not the least doubt that they were deeply impressed by his message.

"On the subject of conservation, Mr. Fairbanks is an enthusiast. The theme is one very near to his heart, and this fact is revealed by the earnestness with which he addresses himself to it. It is a subject on which he speaks authoritatively. The impulse to associate himself actively with the conservation movement came to Mr. Fairbanks just after he returned from his trip around the world. He had observed the pitiful and desolate looking cities and towns where trees had been cut away without discrimination. He saw what it meant to be "treeless and parkless" in visiting some parts of the world, particularly Spain and China. And then while on the continent he saw communities, especially in Germany, where a proper and systematic work of conservation had been in vogue—he saw how well provision had been made for parks and woodlots for future generations and of course the present one. He decided that this state, his home, should not suffer the fate of those where no attention had been paid to the subject, but rather that it enjoy an experience more like Germany."

"Mr. Fairbanks' example shows how compelling one man's enthusiasm can be and how much an earnest leader can accomplish. We ought all of us to further conservation with all our might."

"I want to tell you about our celebration of the one hundredth birthday anniversary of Dickens's birth," said a delegate from the Vincent Circle of Pacific Grove, California. "We did enjoy ourselves mightily. After the regular lesson of the class was finished, the president of Vincent Circle introduced the Dickens program by telling of the preparations made all over the English speaking world for the celebration of the Dickens centenary. One member stated that it had been said that Dickens was the greatest "human interest" writer since Shakespeare, and that his books have a larger circulation than any other English novelist. In England and especially in Portsmouth, the place of his birth, large memorial meetings were held on Wednesday evening, February seventh, and King George and Queen Mary were present at these exercises. The speaker said that one of the most striking features of the Dickens memorial was the presentation of \$50,000 collected from the sale of Dickens memorial stamps, to the five grand-

daughters, all of whom, with the exception of one, have been obliged to earn their living as typists.

"The following interesting program paid a high tribute the the memory of one of the most loved English novelists: Roll call—Quotations from Dickens's work. Reading—A welcome to 'Boz' on his first visit to the West. Duet—"What Are the Wild Waves Saying?" from 'Dombey and Son.' Reading of a splendid article from *The Century*—"Dickens, the Man that Cheers Us Up." Reading—"Dickens in Camp," by Bret Harte. Solo—"Good Night Little Blossom," from 'David Copperfield.' Reading—"Sam Weller's Valentine," from 'Pickwick Papers.'

"The enjoyable program was closed with a lively game, 'The Muggleton Coach' from 'Pickwick Papers,' in which all heartily joined.

"At the conclusion of the game, the class was invited to the dining room where an 'Old Curiosity Shop' supper had been spread, to which all did full justice amid much merriment. The class voted the evening one of the finest they had ever spent."



C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS

OPENING DAY—October 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—November second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY—May 18.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.



OUTLINE FOR REQUIRED READING FOR JUNE

MAY 27-JUNE 3

"Venezuela and the Guianas" (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, "Reading Journey through South America," IX).

"The Interpreters" (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, "As We See Ourselves," IX).

"Scientific Management" (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, "American Engineering," IX).

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAM FOR LOCAL CIRCLES

MAY 27—JUNE 3

1. *Map Talk*. "Venezuela and the Guianas."
2. *Description*. "Venezuela's Possibilities" (see "Venezuela in 1910" in *Pan American Bulletin* for July, 1911).
3. *Book Review*. "The American as He Is" by Nicholas Murray Butler.
4. *Reading* of some of the material suggested in Mr. Heydrick's article.
5. *Discussion*. "How can we introduce scientific management into our homes?" (Make this discussion as definite and practical as possible. Each member should try to apply the principles to some household or personal matter, and then report on the experience).
6. *Reading* from Roosevelt's "American Ideals" or the Library Shelf of this number.



TRAVEL CLUB

Travel Clubs should be provided with Hale's "Practical Guide to Latin America," with a large map of South America, and with individual outline maps of South America and of each country in South America which each member may fill in as the study progresses. Photographs, picture postcards, or pictures in books of all buildings and places mentioned should be exhibited.

A general bibliography of the Reading Journey through South America will be found in the September Magazine. If any clubs or libraries can provide but two books for supplementary reading they should be Dawson's "The South American Republics" and Hale's "The South Americans." Of great contemporary interest is the "Bulletin" published by the Pan-American Union, Washington, D. C. This is a handsomely illustrated monthly magazine whose subscription price is \$1.00 a year. Every Travel Club will find a subscription worth while.

FIRST WEEK

1. *Map Talk*. "Venezuela."
2. *Roll Call*. "Great Names in Venezuela's History."
3. *Historical Sketch* (Akers's "A History of South America;" Dawson's "South American Republics," part II.)
4. *Explanation*. "Venezuela's Boundary Dispute with Great Britain" (Akers; "Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature" under "Venezuela.")
5. *Paper*. "Mr. Cleveland, Venezuela, and the Monroe Doctrine" (Akers; *Nation*, February 18, 1909; "Cleveland's Presidential Problems;" Hale's "The South Americans.")
6. *Composite Biography*. "Castro" (*Review of Reviews*, October 1908; *Independent*, December 31, 1908; *Current Literature*, February, 1909; *North American*, September, 1905 and April, 1908; *Outlook*, April 11, 1908; *Living Age*, October 10, 1908 and many other references under "Venezuela" and "Castro" in the "Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature;" Clark's "Continent of Opportunity.")

SECOND WEEK

1. *Roll Call*. "Venezuela's Resources."

2. *Description*. "Venezuela's Possibilities" ("Venezuela in 1910" in *Pan American Bulletin* for July, 1911; "Industrial and Commercial Outlook in Venezuela" by Brown in *Review of Reviews*, February, 1905.)
3. *Original Story* with the scene laid in Caracas (Clark; Curtis's "Capitals of Spanish America;" Ruhl's "The Other Americans;" Hale's "Guide.")
4. *Paper*. "On the Orinoco" ("A Wasted Waterway" in *Scientific American* for November 25, 1905; "Naturalist in the Tropics" by Beebe in *Harper's Monthly* for March, 1909.)
5. *Book Review* of "Our Search for a Wilderness" by Blair and Beebe.
6. *Reading*. "Charming Caracas" by Brown in *St. Nicholas* for February, 1906, or "Caracas on the Day of the Independencia" by Heilprin in *Nation*, May 10, 1906.)

THIRD WEEK

1. *Map Talk*. "The Guianas."
2. *Book Review* of "Oversea Britain" by E. F. Knight.
3. *Reading* from "Indiana University Expedition to British Guiana" in *Science* for January 1, 1909.
4. *Talk*. "Moravians in South America" (Clark.)
5. *Report*. "The Process of Refining Sugar."
6. *Paper or Story or Poem*. "Sir Walter Raleigh and the Orinoco."

FOURTH WEEK

1. *Roll Call*. "Resources of the Guianas."
2. *Talk*. "The Manufacture of Cocoa."
3. *Reading* from "Journey among the Bushmen of Surinam" in *Missionary Review of the World*, November, 1907.
4. *Summary* of the Dreyfus case (references in "Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature.")
5. *Reading or Recitation* of "Dreyfus" by Palmer in *Current Literature* for September, 1906; and "To Dreyfus Vindicated" by Johnson in *Harper's Weekly* for August, 1911.
6. *Composite Book Summary*. "The Ten Republics" by Robert P. Porter (each chapter should be reported by a different person.)
7. *Symposium*. "What has meant the most to me in this year's study of South America."



REVIEW AND SEARCH QUESTIONS ON MAY READINGS

AS WE SEE OURSELVES. CHAPTER IX. THE INTERPRETERS OF AMERICAN LIFE.

1. Who are the chief writers on American life as a whole?
2. What are Dr. Strong's conclusions as to a) the destiny of America, b) the shifting of power, c) our national perils?
3. What does Dr. Eliot regard as America's contributions to civilization?
4. How does Dr. Eliot look upon American journalism?
5. Upon America's production of a high type of woman?
6. Compare Dr. Eliot's judgment with Dr. Strong's.
7. What are the causes which, according to Dr. Butler, make us a united people?
8. What does he consider the characteristics of the American mind?
9. What is his opinion of a) the Middle West, b) the East as compared with the West,

c) American speech, d) money-getting, e) opportunity, f) the trusts, g) possible dangers? 10. What does Dr. van Dyke regard as the chief elements of the American character? 11. What is his comment on a) American humor, b) love of order, c) self-reliance, d) intensity, e) schools? 12. What is Prof. Coolidge's list of American traits? 13. What does he say of a) the change wrought by the war with Spain, b) our rule over our new possessions, c) the race problem? 14. What contradiction has been wrought in our own country? 15. Against what races is there prejudice? 16. What does Professor Coolidge say about our economic position? 17. What does Mr. Roosevelt regard as the dangers of American life? 18. A prominent fault? 19. To what are "special interests" entitled? 20. What is the importance of the Panama Canal? 21. What is Mr. Roosevelt's aim? 22. What does Mr. Sedgwick say of American women? 23. Of American men? 24. How does Mr. Heydrick answer Mr. Sedgwick? 25. What conflict does Mr. Sedgwick assert? 26. What does he declare to be the result of our industrial vanity? 27. In what groups does Mr. Heydrick class the criticisms of American life which have been studied in this series? 28. Summarize his summary of the a) conditions, b) national problems, c) characteristics of the average American.

READING JOURNEY THROUGH SOUTH AMERICA. CHAPTER IX. VENEZUELA AND THE GUIANAS.

Venezuela

1. Describe the topography of Venezuela? 2. In what does its beauty lie? 3. What is its size? 4. What historic interests are connected with it? 5. What natural qualities make it interesting? 6. What is the pleasantest route from Colombia to Venezuela? 7. To what is the name Maracaibo applied? 8. What contrasting scenery is viewed here? 9. How came "Venezuela" by its name? 10. What is Coro? 11. Curacao? 12. Of what importance is Puerto Cabello? 13. Describe La Guayra. 14. What is Macuto? 15. Describe the approach to Caracas. 16. The city itself. 17. Its "sights." 18. What is the scenery between Caracas and Puerto Cabello? 19. What is memorable about Trinidad? 20. Characterize the deltaic region of the Orinoco river basin. 21. Speak of the Orinoco system. 22. What examples of tropical life are to be seen? 23. What is the topography along the Orinoco? 24. What are Venezuela's resources? 25. What is the population? 26. How will the Panama Canal benefit commerce? 27. What is the government of Venezuela? 28. Who have been her famous men. 29. Discuss the work of Blanco. 30. Of Castro.

The Guianas

31. What is the size of the Guianas? 32. Speak of their topography? 33. What is the historical interest? 34. What is the population? 35. Say something of Georgetown. 36. What is the capital of Dutch Guiana? 37. How is French Guiana best known to us?

AMERICAN ENGINEERING. CHAPTER IX. SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT.

1. What are some of the occupations to which scientific management has been applied? 2. How may the law governing the best way of doing one's work be discovered? 3. What is "scientific management?" 4. Who is Frederick W. Taylor? 5. What was the situa-

tion at the Midvale Steel Works? 6. What did Mr. Taylor try to do when he became foreman? 7. What were the discoveries about the handling of pig iron? 8. What is meant by standardizing machines? 9. Operations? 10. What was the experience with the pulley boring machine? 11. How many motions were there in the old method of brick laying and what one especially required great expenditure of energy? 12. What is Mr. Gilbreth's method? 13. What are the duties of the management—the company—in establishing scientific management? 14. What is the importance of planning and how is it done? 15. How do the operations of the other departments fit in to that of the planning department? 16. What is the effect of the planning system upon the workman? 17. What is the operation of the day work method of pay? 18. How does scientific management alter this system? 19. How does it affect the foreman? 20. How does the bonus system quicken the whole shop? 21. Quote Mr. Taylor on scientific management.



SEARCH QUESTIONS ON JUNE READINGS

1. Who is Dr. Josiah Strong? 2. Who is Dr. Eliot? 3. Who is Dr. Butler? 4. Who is Dr. van Dyke? 5. What is the Sorbonne?
1. Why is pig iron so called? 2. What is the derivation of the word 'bonus'?



ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON MAY READINGS

1. University of Wisconsin. 2. Cornell. 3. Western Reserve University and Cleveland College of Law. 4. American Magazine.
1. 1879-80. 2. "Travels Amongst the Great Andes of the Equator."
1. 1520. 2. The English admiral, Blake, fought with the Dutch admiral, Tromp, off Portland in February, 1653. The battle was indecisive.



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1. Why have Americans accepted as true the idea that foreigners know us better than we know ourselves? 2. What novelists have been socialistic in tendency? 3. What artistic necessities govern purpose novels? 4. Name three successful American plays. 5. What was the effect of the passage of the international copyright law? 6. What process of growth is outlined in "The Fourth Estate?" 7. What is the significance of the three recent race problem plays? 8. What is the power of the drama? 9. Name five American poems referred to and the particular American ideal suggested which each embodies. 10. How does Whitman symbolize democracy? 11. How does the work of Markham meet that of Norris? 12. How do William James and Bliss Perry regard American intensity? 13. What

do Chapman, Grant, and Higginson say about New York society? 14. What is the right way of interpreting the newspaper picture of American life? 15. What are the four currents of the influence of the monthly magazines? 16. What paradox is proved by our humorists? 17. In what eight groups may American books on Economics and Sociology be arranged? 18. How are the problems interwoven? 19. State the change wrought in the United States by the war with Spain, as described by Professor Coolidge. 20. Summarize Mr. Heydrick's summary of the a) conditions, b) national problems, c) characteristics of the average American. 21. How did Spain and Portugal benefit from the early American discoveries? 22. Describe the civilization of South America at the time of the first white invasion. 23. From what colonial territories sprang the South American republics today, except Brazil? 24. What events characterized the war in which the colonists broke with the mother country? 25. Is a United States of South America conceivable? 26. Give statements proving the immensity of the Amazon. 27. What is said of the variety in the vegetable and the animal kingdoms? 28. Compare Argentina with the United States in size and transportation facilities. 29. How well provided with utilities is Buenos Aires? 30. What is the character of the Andean country? 31. What is said of Patagonia? 32. What is the size of the river Plate? 33. What good work was done by the Jesuit missions? 34. What is the historical interest of the Guianas? 35. What part is played in commerce by Peru and the republics north of her? 36. Mention some of the exports and imports carried by the West coasters. 37. What is the size and physical character of Peru? 38. Among what mountains did Frederick E. Church paint his "Heart of the Andes?" 39. What was "El Dorado?" 40. Describe the Orinoco river and the Orinoco system. 41. What importance today is laid on technical training? 42. Define the service of a) boiler, b) engine, c) condenser, d) feed pump, e) piping. 43. Give reasons for the popularity of the hot water heating system. 44. By what three methods may cold be produced? 45. What are the four operations necessary to get out the power of a gas or gasoline engine? 46. What is the engineer's part in bringing about public health? 47. Describe the sewage disposal system of Baltimore. 48. Define a) reinforced concrete, b) unit construction, c) monolithic construction. 49. What is scientific management and give examples of its value? 50. Discuss the nature and importance of the planning department.

Talk About Books

LANDMARKS IN FRENCH LITERATURE. By G. L. Strachey. New York: Henry Holt & Company. 50 cents.

For a survey of the outstanding figures of French literature with an acute analysis of the contribution which each made to his time and to the general mass there has been no book as yet published so judiciously interesting.

THE BURGUNDIAN. By Marion Polk Angellotti. New York: The Century Co. \$1.30 net.

When John the Fearless met Rosamonde de Barbazan the clash of their wills supplied the element of struggle for a story of 15th century France as brimming with life as anything of Weyman's. The turmoil of Paris streets is as vivid as the strife of warring spirits.

AN INTRODUCTION TO MATHEMATICS. By A. N. Whitehead. New York: Henry Holt & Co.; London: Williams & Norgate. 50 cents net.

This charming little book "reads like a novel." The fundamental notions of elementary mathematics up to and including the calculus are presented with a lucidity, brevity, and absence of technical detail that is astounding. But the most interesting feature both to the general reader and to the mathematician is the exposition of the nature of mathematical thinking and of the rôle which it plays in thought in general. The book is written with a freshness of style which is as pleasing as it is rare in a book of this kind.

EVOLUTION. By Patrick Geddes and J. Arthur Thomson. New York: Henry Holt & Co.; London: Williams & Norgate. 50 cents net.

A professor of botany and a professor of natural history have combined to give a thorough survey of evolution in such compass as 250 pages offers. The chapters on the evidences of evolution brought forward by scientists throw light on the sources of man's knowledge of the subject; the chapter on Variation and Heredity is interesting though unduly technical for a book frankly addressed to laymen; the chapter on the social connection with theories of evolution is in itself an interesting evolution.

THE EVOLUTION OF PLANTS. By Dr. D. H. Scott. New York: Henry Holt & Co.; London: Williams & Norgate. 50 cents net.

The president of the Linnaean Society of London has given in this small volume a survey, based on fossil discoveries, of the evolution of flowering and seed and spore plants. While the nomenclature necessarily is difficult, technicalities have been excluded as far as possible and the book is readable even for the uninitiated.

OUTLINE OF A COURSE IN THE PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION. By John Angus MacVannel, Ph.D. New York: Macmillan Co. 90c net. This "Outline Course," as the author explains, is "a revision and extension of a syllabus in the philosophy of education for some time in use in a class in Teacher's College, Columbia University." It has therefore had a practical test at the hands of its able author, whose ultimate purpose is "to indicate some of the important lines along which educational reconstruction at the present time seems to be

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WOMAN'S PART IN GOVERNMENT, WHETHER SHE VOTES OR NOT. William H. Allen. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.50 net.

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A BRIEF COURSE IN THE TEACHING PROCESS. George Drayton Strayer. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$1.25 net.

Dr. Strayer's "Brief Course in the Teaching Process," is one of the most practical books on the subject that has ever been published. The author not only *tells* how, but *shows* how to teach. The illustrative matter is most valuable, especially in the chapter on Lesson Plans.

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WOMEN OF ANCIENT ISRAEL. By Charlotte H. Adams. New York: National Board Y. W. C. A. of the U. S. A. 25 cents paper, 40 cents cloth.

Seven studies of Old Testament women fill this useful and interesting handbook. Quotations, suggestive questions, Biblical references enrich a little volume interesting for the student and valuable for the teacher.

IDYLLS OF THE KING. Edited by Charles W. French, A. M. New York: The Macmillan Company. 25 cents net.

To the Pocket Classics series has been added another volume useful both to teacher and to student. Mr. French has supplied an introduction which includes a sketch of Tennyson's life and a description of the "Idylls," and notes which err on the side of too great generosity.

SOCIAL FRANCE IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY. By Cécile Hugon. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$3.00 net.

To most of us Louis XIV in all his vanity and resplendence seems the glittering *all* of the seventeenth century. Cécile Hugon's charming "Social France in the Seventeenth Century" shows from contemporary letters not only the court—of Henry IV and Louis XIII as well as of the "Sun King"—but the clergy, the bourgeoisie and the peasantry in their separate lives and their inter-relations throughout the "Great Century." War and famine, snobbishness, extravagance, religious zeal and worldly splendor all pass in the panorama of the years that were adding to the centralization of power in the king and to the degradation of the lowest in the land that finally resulted in the Revolution. Dress, housekeeping, and education, fill entertaining chapters. Men and women of well-known names are the actors against this background. The book reads easily for layman as well as student.

It is unnecessarily large to the hand, though pleasantly light in weight.

THE CENTURY AND THE SCHOOL. By Frank Louis Soldan. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$1.25 net.

The eight essays assembled under the title, "The Century and the School," were selected from the manuscripts of Frank Louis Soldan, late superintendent of the St. Louis public schools, after his death. In a wide range of subjects the author has shown himself in closest touch with educational problems, and keenly appreciative of the ethical task which the present day demands of the schools: "a hand ready to help, a contented mind, and an appreciation of those

treasures that are higher than life itself." Aristotle's definition of virtue as "a mean between two extremes" furnishes a basis for disposing of all sorts of educational fads. Very practical and helpful is the essay on "Teachers' Duties." "Folklore and Fairy Tales" reveals Mr. Soldan's grasp of the child mind and his skill in using the natural interests of the child "as fulcrums for the spiritual levers by which the child-nature is to be raised to higher culture." The essays are not only definitely helpful, but buoyantly inspiring. They are of decided literary merit and put the reader in touch with a life of culture, experience and high moral purpose.

The print, paper and plain green cloth binding are entirely satisfactory.

ELEMENTARY PLANT BIOLOGY. By James Edward Peabody and Arthur Ellsworth Hunt. New York: The Macmillan Company. 75 cents.

As the activities of plants, animals, and the highest animal, man, may all be grouped under the heads of the nutritive function, of the reproductive function and of the relation of one unit to another; and as young people are more interested in functions than in structure, the authors of this new "Elementary Plant Biology" have made its teachings extend far beyond the vegetable kingdom. The experiments, of which many are suggested, are chiefly with the plants, but many are applicable to the other kingdoms. The book is rich in material for students and of suggestions for teachers, and is by no means an uninteresting book for laymen. Several appendices give valuable information. The book is well illustrated.

CRIME AND INSANITY. By Dr. C. A. Mercier. New York: Henry Hold & Co. London: Williams & Norgate. 50 cents net.

Dr. Mercier is a physician for mental diseases to Charing Cross Hospital and is the author of several books on insanity. His work, therefore, must be accepted as the result of trained thought and experience. To the criminologist it is interesting for its reclassification of crimes; to the psychologist it offers a reasonable definition of insanity—that it is "disorder of the process of adjusting the self to the circumstances and that it is primarily manifested in disorder, not of mind, but of conduct." From Dr. Mercier's point of view crime is such disorder of conduct as is hostile to the cohesion of society. These acts of disorder are examined in some detail as to their origin and usual forms of manifestation.

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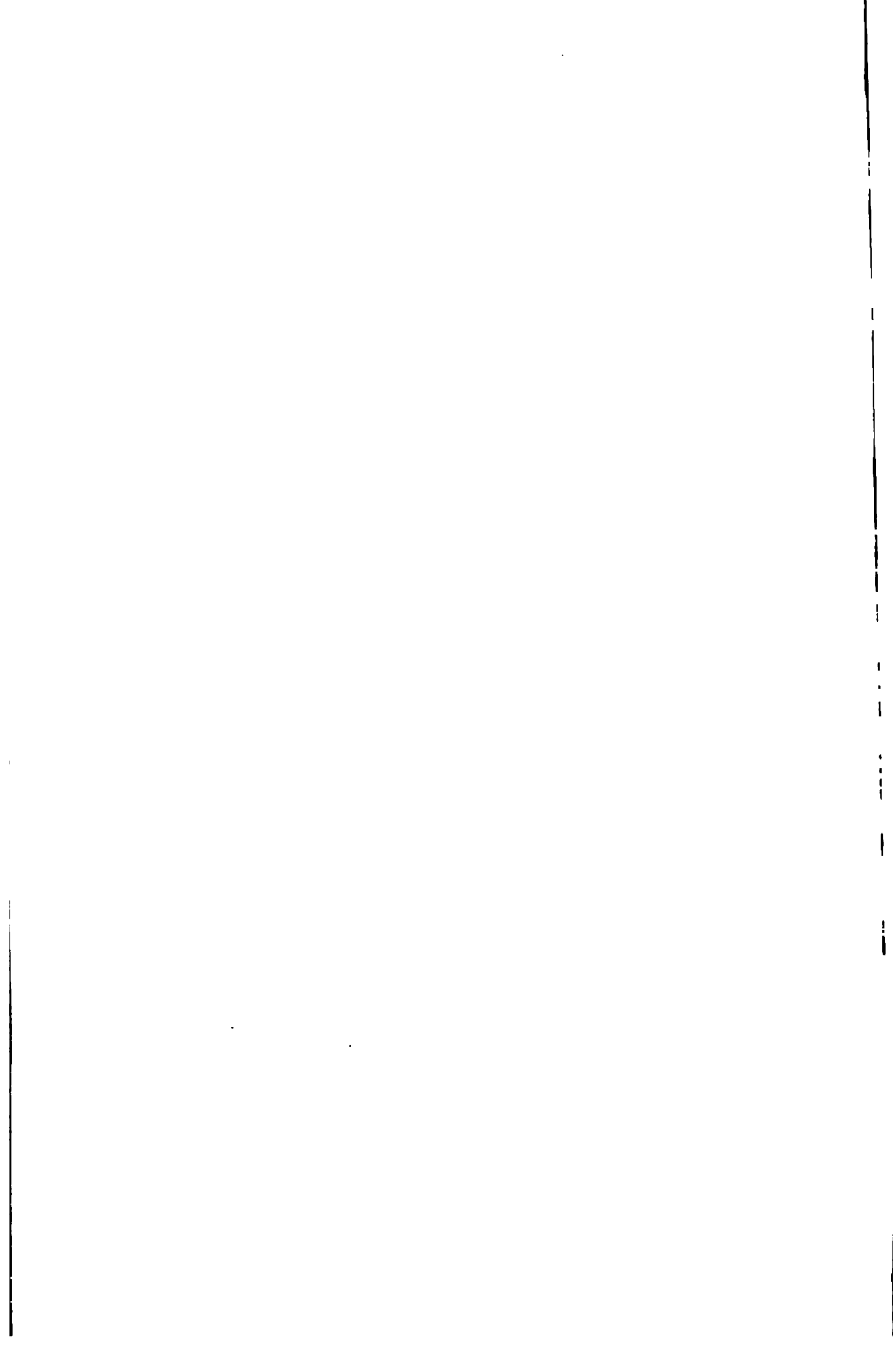
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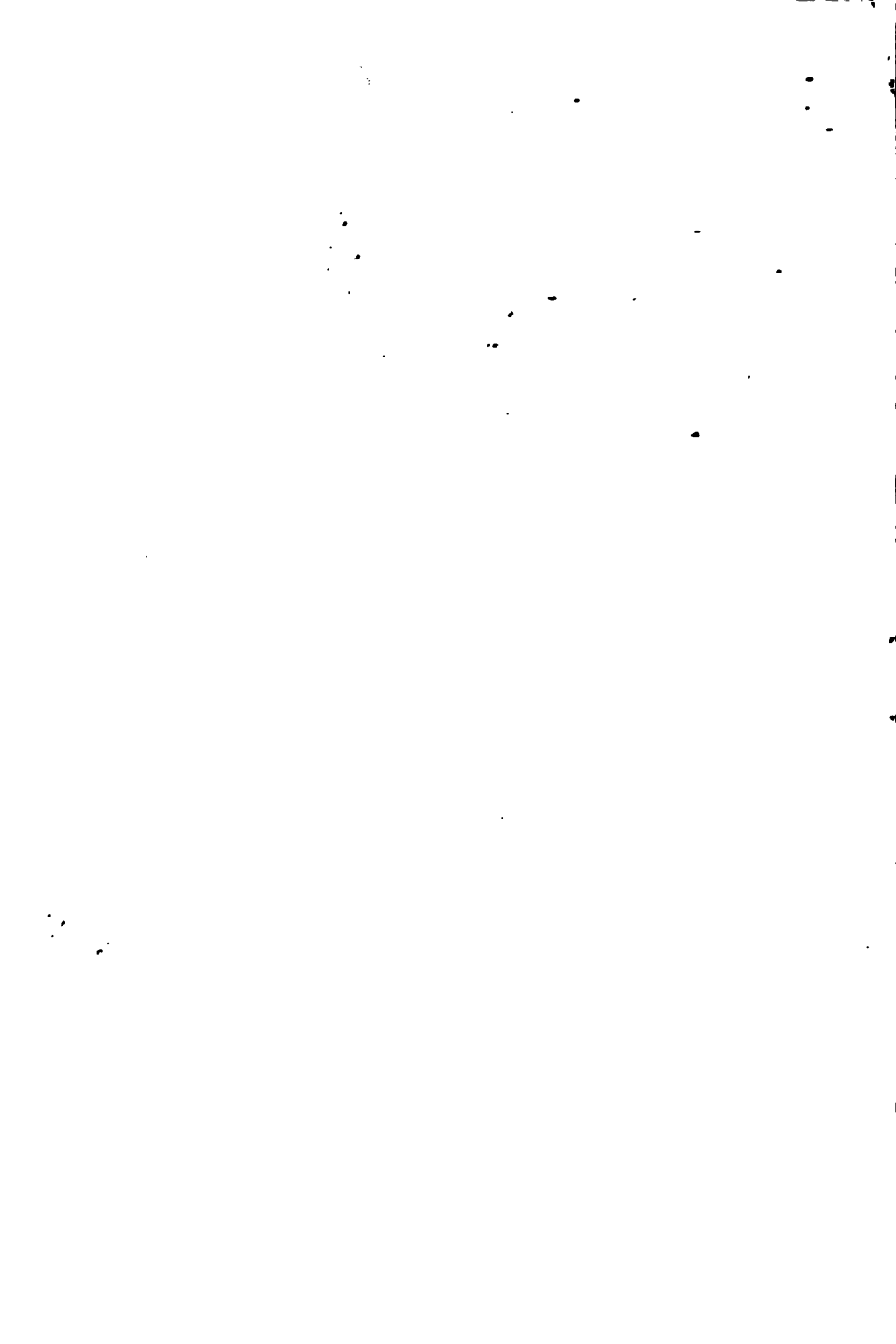


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